CANADIAN CIVICS

R. S. JENKINS

AUTHORIZED FOR USE IN THE SCHOOLS OF NOVA SCOTIA

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CANADIAN CIVICS

BY

R. S. JENKINS, M.A.,

HEAD OF THE DEPARTMENT OF HISTORY IN THE COLLEGIATE INSTITUTE AND LECTURER IN THE FACULTY OF EDUCATION, QUEEN'S UNIVERSITY, KINGSTON

Honour all men. Love the brotherhood. Fear God. Honour the King.—*Bible*

NOVA SCOTIA EDITION

Authorized for use in the Schools of Nova Scotia

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PREFACE.

One of the most important duties of the state is to provide for the education of the children who will some day be its masters. Democracy with all its good and evil must be accepted as the basis of modern government. Though here and there a philosopher may scoff at the "suffrage of the plow," yet social order and stability must henceforth depend on either the tolerance or the good will of the masses of the people. The time when a small educated class could safeguard the glories of civilized life and the arts by the use of physical or moral force, is rapidly disappearing. Therefore, it is a self-evident fact that the state ought to teach its future citizens the worth of our civilization and the ways of preserving it from impairment, and of assisting in its progress. We must no longer, as those of an earlier age, walk calmly over the surface underneath which slumbers the volcano of popular passion. The fruits of centuries of toil are too precious to be exposed to any possibility of injury. There must be a means sought for training our people in social and civic responsibility.

Government is the foundation on which the splendid fabric of our civilization is upreared. Therefore, it is a subject about which the pupils in the schools should receive very definite instruction. In the present little book an effort is made to present the elementary facts about our system of government in the simplest form, so that those who do not pass beyond the senior grades of the public school or the junior grades of the high school, may go out into the world with some adequate conception of what will be their duties and responsibilities as Canadian citizens.

Montreal, Jan. 1, 1909.

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CANADIAN CIVICS.

PART I.—NATIONAL AFFAIRS.

TOPIC I.

The Outside Nations and the Empire.

1. The Nations.

When we look abroad upon the world, we observe that it has numerous divisions which bear the name of "countries" and which are occupied by "nations." Some of these divisions are large, such as the United States and Russia, while others are small, such as Switzerland and Greece. But we must not estimate power and importance solely by extent of territory. Thus Germany, though occupying a portion of Europe of only moderate area, is regarded as one of the great nations of the world.

There are, however, very few countries strong enough to defend themselves successfully against a foreign foe. The weaker nations owe their independence sometimes to the sense of justice of the more powerful, but more often to the

mutual jealousy existing among these latter. None is willing to see any of its neighbours grow very strong. Consequently, if a smaller country is invaded by a more powerful one there is probability that outside assistance will be given the former in one way or another.

Thus efforts are constantly being made to preserve what is commonly called the "balance of power." The stronger nations of the world are known as the "great powers." They are Great Britain, France, Germany, Italy, Austro-Hungary, Russia, United States and Japan.

2. The Kinds of Government.

After what has been said, we can describe in a general way what a "nation" is. It is a united body of people occupying a certain territory which is called a "country." Further, matters are so arranged that one man, or a small group of men, acts as its head, and is its highest representative in its dealings with other nations. Now the question is, how can a very large number of people, in some cases hundreds of millions, be induced to act together so that they will form one nation? The answer

is that this result is brought about by what is called "government," and we shall be studying in this book what our government is and how it holds our nation together.

To us in our day it would seem quite natural for a number of persons to agree to work together and to help one another in many ways, such as giving aid in defence against enemies, forming treaties with friends, and building roads and bridges or making other improvements. But we learn from history that the present arrangements by which these and many other things are done, were arrived at only after centuries of effort. Moreover, some nations have not made as much progress in government as we, and we ourselves, we shall see, have not yet reached perfection.

If we read history and observe how governments have grown up, we shall be inclined to place them in two classes. One class will include those in which the head of the nation, generally called a king or an emperor, is always a member of a particular family, and in which the son, no matter what sort of man he may be, usually

succeeds the father. This kind of government is called "monarchical," and it is that of Great Britain, Germany and Russia. The other kind of government is the "republican," where the head, often known as the "president," is chosen from the general body of the people by the citizens themselves or by persons directly representing them. This is the form existing in the United States and France. It is worthy of note that often men who are born poor and in a humble position rise to be presidents of the republics.

The better division, however, is into the two classes, "despotic" and "popular." In a despotic government, the ruler and a small group of men associated with him carry on the business of the nation without consulting the wishes of the people, while, in a popular government, the rulers, whoever they may be, must govern as the people wish. The government of Great Britain is monarchical and popular, while that of the United States is republican and popular. There are not many purely despotic governments now in the world, but some of the monarchical

governments of Asia and Africa and some of the republican governments of South America still belong to that class.

3. The Empire and the Colonies.

The name "Great Britain" is ordinarily used as the short form for the full title, "The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland." Great Britain is the ruling state, or division, in the Empire to which we belong. In dealings with other nations, except in commercial and some other matters, Great Britain acts for the whole Empire. Divisions of the Empire, such as Canada, may have representatives in making treaties and arrangements with other nations on any matter which closely concerns them. But these are appointed as representatives of Great Britain as well, and are considered as such by foreign states.

It is plain that at present a great change is going on in the Empire. Some think that after a time the several divisions that are in the same position as ourselves, will be placed on an equal footing with the ruling division, Great Britain, and that some way will be devised of

making them all work together as one nation, when dealing with the rest of the world. Others believe that this plan of "allied nations" is not practicable, and that, if we try to carry it out, it will lead to the breaking up of the Empire. Here is one of our great problems and no one yet can see a good solution.

Our Empire is not an "empire" in the strict sense of the term. It has received this name solely on account of its enormous size, for its head is not an emperor but a king. Though the king is called an emperor as well, it is only as the ruler of India that he has a right to the title.

All the divisions of the Empire, except the British Isles and India, were originally called "colonies," or settlements, because emigrants went from Great Britain to take up land, or *settle*, in them. All of them were at first governed by men whom Great Britain appointed for the purpose. The colonists had very little to do with the management of their own public affairs.

But afterwards those colonies which possessed a sufficiently large and suitable population were

allowed to govern themselves, and they have all established popular forms of government as much like that of Great Britain as possible. Such colonies have long been known as self-governing colonies, but they have lately received the special name of "dominions." This is the name which we chose when we united the separate colonies of Canada, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia into one large country, the Dominion of Canada.

The word "colony" we do not like, and we usually speak of ourselves as a "nation." Some object to the name "nation," because it ordinarily means an "independent nation" or "sovereign state," and we do not claim to be that, but desire to be part of the Empire. Its use may be defended, because it is the nearest suitable word for a new condition of affairs, and we give the term a special meaning, just as the people of the United States have given a special meaning to the word "state." A "state" like New York is not an independent state, but is subject to the government of the whole United States at Washington. The chief "dominions" in the Empire besides Canada, are Australia

(called "Commonwealth)," New Zealand, Newfoundland, and Union of South Africa.

On the other hand, the colonies which have not a population suitable for self-government, as those situated in the tropics where the native races are not highly civilized, are placed, either wholly or partly, under the administration of persons chosen by Great Britain. Such are called "crown colonies."

But sometimes native races are left under their own rulers, Great Britain maintaining a general oversight through a specially appointed representative. This kind of government is known as a "protectorate." Sometimes also Great Britain conducts the government of a country which in strict law is the dependency of another nation, but which in fact is a part of the British Empire. Thus Egypt and Cyprus, though they belong in name to the Turkish Empire, are really ruled by Great Britain.

It may be said that in the British Empire there is every kind of government from the most highly popular to the most despotic. But whatever may be the form, Great Britain

endeavours to administer it in such a manner as to make possible for each of the vast number of races and tribes under the imperial sway the greatest amount of happiness and prosperity.

NOTES.—The name "Great Britain" has been employed throughout. But it is to be observed that the name "England" is often used for the whole "United Kingdom," because of its being that of the largest division. The term "Britain" is also employed. "Imperial Government" is frequently used for "Government of Great Britain" or "British Government," because it is the supreme or highest government of the Empire. "Greater Britain" is a common newspaper term for the colonies. Its origin is obvious. The actual title of the king is: "George the Fifth, by the Grace of God, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland and of the British Dominions beyond the Seas, King, Defender of the Faith, Emperor of India."

QUESTIONS.

1. What nations are called the "great powers"? Why are they so called?

2. What does "government" do for the nation?

3. Mention and describe the chief kinds of government.

4. What is an empire? Why do we call the British Empire by that name?

5. What are "crown colonies," "protectorates," and "dominions"? Give examples of each.

6. Read over and try to understand the lines quoted from Shakespeare.

ENGLAND.

This royal throne of kings, this sceptered isle,
This earth of majesty, this seat of Mars,
This other Eden, demi-paradise,
This fortress built by Nature for herself
Against infection and the hand of war,
This happy breed of men, this little world,
This precious stone set in the silver sea,
Which serves it in the office of a wall
Or as a moat defensive to a house,
Against the envy of less happier lands,
This blessed plot, this earth, this realm, this England.

—Shakespeare, King Richard II, Act II, Sc. 1.

TOPIC II.

THE DOMINION AND THE PROVINCES.

1. Federal System of Government.

Our system of government is what is known as a confederation, and in this respect it resembles that of the United States and Australia and differs from that of Great Britain and France. The settled part of Canada is divided into nine provinces, each having a government of its own.

A provincial government has the duty of looking after certain definite matters which concern the province alone, and which it is believed can best be managed by such a body of local men familiar with local needs. In a country of vast extent such as ours, the provinces differ very much from one another, in their position, some being on the sea and others inland; in their physical features, some being mountainous and others consisting of prairie; and in their inhabitants, some containing chiefly people whose ancestors came from the British Isles, others possessing a more mixed population, and one, Quebec, having a great majority of persons of French descent. Consequently, it is plain that with respect to many things laws must be different in different provinces in order to suit the varying conditions.

On the other hand, all matters which were thought by the founders of our constitution to concern the whole body of Canadians, or those about which it was felt more suitable laws could be made by a group of men representing the entire country, were left to be managed

by a central government, usually called the Dominion or Federal Government.

2. Subjects of Dominion Legislation.

Now in order that there should be no doubt as to which government, Dominion or provincial, had the right to make laws in regard to particular matters, it was agreed that the Dominion should deal with everything which was not expressly assigned to the control of the provinces. Then "for greater certainty" there was drawn up the following list of subjects about which the government of the Dominion alone has the power to "legislate" (that is, make laws):

(1) The public debt and property, (2) trade and commerce, (3) the raising of money by any kind of taxation, (4) the borrowing of money, (5) the postal service, (6) the taking of the census, (7) military and naval matters, (8) the payment of the "civil service," that is, the clerks and other officials employed by the government, (9) lighthouses, (10) navigation and shipping, (11) quarantine and marine hospitals, (12) fisheries, (13) ferries, except when

entirely within a province, (14) currency and coinage, (15) banking and paper money, (16) savings banks, (17) weights and measures, (18) bills of exchange and promissory notes, (19) interest, (20) legal tender, that is, what shall be accepted as money in payment for anything, (21) bankruptcy, (22) patents for inventions, (23) copyrights on books, etc., (24) Indians and Indian lands, (25) naturalization, that is, the giving of the rights of citizenship to foreigners, (26) marriage and divorce, (27) the criminal law, except the constitution of the courts of law, (28) penitentiaries, (29) matters expressly stated as not belonging to the provinces.

3. Subjects of Provincial Legislation.

To the provincial governments has been assigned the definite list of subjects given below. They cannot legislate about any matter not mentioned in this list; but they alone can legislate about those which are included in it. The list is,

(1) The changing of the constitution of the province, except in regard to the office of

lieutenant-governor, (2) direct taxation, (3) the borrowing of money for the province, (4) the civil service of the province, (5) the public lands, if the province owns its lands, (6) the prisons and reformatories of the province, (7) hospitals, asylums, and charitable institutions, (8) municipal institutions, (9) licenses such as those of taverns, shops, and auctioneers, (10) local works and undertakings, except lines of steamships, railways, canals, telegraphs, and other works and undertakings extending outside the province, and such works which, although wholly inside the province, are declared by the Dominion parliament to be for the general advantage of Canada, (11) the incorporation of companies for business in the province, (12) the solemnization of marriage, (13) property and civil rights, (14) the administration of justice and procedure in civil matters in the courts, (15) punishment by fine and imprisonment, in case any provincial law is broken, and (16) generally all matters of a merely local or private nature.

The subject of education must be added to this provincial list. But if a province before

it entered confederation has passed laws to establish separate schools, it must always allow these schools to be carried on. Consequently, the Roman Catholics of Ontario and the Protestants of Quebec can never be forced to give up the separate schools which they at present possess. Further, the subjects of agriculture and immigration may be dealt with by both the Dominion and the provinces. But if the Dominion law and the provincial law do not agree in whole or in part, the Dominion law is the one which has force.

What happens if a province enacts a law on a subject with which it has no right to deal? If a person breaks such a law, can he be punished? He can allow the matter to go to trial in a court, and it is there determined whether the province has a right to enact such a law or not. If the province has no such right, the person wins his case and cannot be punished. In very important matters a suit of this kind will be carried from a lower court to a higher, until it is finally decided by the highest court in the Empire, the Privy Council in England.

4. Dominion Control of Provincial Legislation.

But there is another way by which not only a law beyond the right of a province to make, but even one which comes within its right, can be entirely set aside. This is to be found in what is known as the power of "disallowance." The Dominion government may, if it desires, "disallow," or set aside, any provincial law, provided that it does so within a year after receiving a copy of such law from the province. This is a power which should not be used very often, because it is very natural for the people of a province to resent what looks like too much interference with their own local affairs.

5. Imperial Control of Dominion Legislation.

The government of Great Britain has likewise the right to disallow a law enacted by the Dominion, if it is considered that this law will cause injury to the Empire, is contrary to treaties that have been made with foreign nations, or is beyond the right of our parliament to pass.

6. Uncertainties as to Dominion and Provincial Powers.

Now it may seem as if everything had been carefully provided for, so that no dispute could ever arise between a province and the Dominion in regard to the subjects about which they have a right to legislate. But it is just here that some of the greatest difficulties have been encountered. Many matters were not carefully enough stated in the constitution, and, as a consequence, the courts have had to do a great deal of work in determining whether the Dominion or the provinces have the power to legislate in certain cases. For example, one of the very important questions for a long time in doubt was, how far the provinces could go in making laws about the sale of intoxicating liquors. This question has been at last decided, and it is now known that the provinces are allowed to restrict and practically to prohibit the sale in certain well-defined ways.

In concluding this topic, we may observe that the laws of our province have much more to do with our ordinary life and its happiness than

have the laws of the Dominion. For what our city or other local municipality asks from us or does for us, how our schools are conducted, how property is kept or sold, and a vast number of such matters as most intimately concern us, all depend upon the laws, good or bad, which our province makes.

NOTE.—The "constitution" is the name given to the whole body or collection of rules in accordance with which the government of a country is conducted. In Great Britain these rules are not anywhere written out together in one document. They are gathered from what British governments have done in the past even back to distant ages, and have come to be pretty well understood. If there is doubt as to what to do in a particular case, or if there really is no rule, a certain decision is adopted by the government as to the matter. This decision may lead up to a new rule for the future, and is called a "precedent." In the United States, however, a great number of the rules of government are written out in a formal document, and are changed rarely and with difficulty. So we speak of Great Britain as having an "unwritten" constitution, and of the United States as having largely a "written" constitution. Canada has a written constitution in the "British North America Act," which was passed by the parliament of Great Britain at our request in 1867, so that the various separate provinces of those days might be formed into a union or "confederation," and be able to work together with a federal government over them all. But there are a multitude of points which our written constitution does not cover, and so we follow and establish precedents as well, and also go back to the precedents set by the governments of Great Britain.

Questions.

1. Why is the federal system of government suitable for Canada?

2. Tell in a general way what classes of subjects come under the jurisdiction of the Dominion and of the provincial governments. Illustrate your answer by examples.

3. To what extent can the provinces deal with the subjects of education and immigration?

4. How can the Dominion control the legislation of the provinces? How can Great Britain control Dominion legislation?

5. What difficulty has arisen in the working of our federal system?

6. What is meant by the "constitution"? What is a "precedent"?

7. Write a composition taking as your subject the thought contained in the following lines:

The State.

What constitutes a state?
Not high-raised battlement or laboured mound,
Thick wall or moated gate;
Not cities proud with spires and turrets crowned;
Not bays and broad-armed ports,
Where, laughing at the storm, rich navies ride;
Not starred and spangled courts,
Where low-browed baseness wafts perfume to pride.

No! men, high-minded men,
With powers as far above dull brutes endued
In forest, brake, or den,
As beasts excel cold rocks and brambles rude,—
Men who their duties know,
But know their rights, and knowing, dare maintain,
Prevent the long-aimed blow,
And crush the tyrant while they rend the chain.

—*William Jones.*

TOPIC III.

How the Laws are Made.

1. Legislation.

In the government of a country there are three kinds of work to be done. One is the making of the laws, and another is the carrying out of the laws. The third kind of work is that which the courts do in deciding what the law is in particular cases that are brought before them.

Let us for the present consider only the first kind of work, the making of the laws. We may well do so, because in our country the men who carry out the laws are also among those who make the laws. In the United States, on the other hand, the men who carry out the laws,

namely, the president and his cabinet, have little part in making them.

2. Parliament.

The body of men who legislate for the Dominion is called the "parliament" of Canada. Parliament consists of the king and the two houses of parliament, the Senate and the House of Commons. The king cannot, of course, be present here in Canada, and so some one is appointed to act for him. This representative of the king is known as the governor-general. Yet it must always be remembered that the king is considered to be the direct ruler of Canada. All laws are made in his name, and not in that of the governor-general. Moreover, the governor-general is said to give not his own but the king's assent to a bill, before it becomes law.

3. Governor-General.

The governor-general is appointed by the British government, and is generally some well known man in Great Britain. He is usually a member of the House of Lords. No Canadian has ever been appointed, but it cannot be said that any rule has been made as yet in regard

to the matter. Some day the question will come up for decision, and there will be a precedent set either for or against the appointment of a Canadian to this high office.

The governor-general acts towards the houses of parliament of Canada in exactly the same way as the king acts towards the houses of parliament of Great Britain. The king nowadays has no power to do anything but what the houses of parliament wish. If they pass a bill, he must assent to it.

He does not sit in either of the houses, and is quite apart from them. But the leader of the government, that is, the person whom the House of Commons is willing to obey, is expected to tell the king about all important matters that are being discussed in parliament. The king can give advice to the leader of the government, and can warn him, if he thinks that he is leading parliament to make mistakes, but cannot refuse to do what parliament wishes. All discussions between the king and the leader of the government are kept absolutely secret. So nobody really knows what the king's opinions are.

Since he must do what parliament and its leader desire, he is never blamed if a mistake is made. Consequently, there is at the head of the nation a person who is regarded as above and beyond all the fierce struggle of politics. If the nation is dissatisfied, it blames only the leader of the government and those who support him in parliament.

Sometimes, however, our governor-general, when a bill is sent to him after it has passed the two Houses, may say that he does not give the king's assent to it, but reserves it for the king's decision, that is, of course, for the decision of the government of Great Britain. The governor-general will never reserve a bill, unless he has a good reason for so doing, such as, believing that it will be hurtful to the Empire as a whole, that it is contrary to treaties with foreign nations, or that it is beyond the right of our parliament to pass. Two years are allowed for the British government to consider whether the king's assent shall be given to a bill reserved in this way. If it is given, the bill becomes law, but, if not, the bill does not become law.

As has been mentioned before, the British government can likewise disallow a law already passed and assented to by the governor-general. So its powers are very great, but they are used carefully, or there would soon arise much ill-feeling in Canada against Britain. In the same way there would be ill-feeling in the provinces, if the Dominion government used its power of disallowance without proper care. All trouble is usually avoided, because the governments concerned earnestly strive to meet one another's views as far as possible. In the end matters can generally be arranged in a very friendly way, even when the governments have not at first been in agreement upon certain points.

4. The Senate.

It is in the houses of parliament that the laws are made; for it is now plain that the governor-general, although he is at the head of the nation, has scarcely any real power. Of the two Houses, the Senate is very much less important than the Commons. The Senate has, however, the same right of legislation as the Commons, except in one important matter. But usually it

does not try to do much work beyond accepting after more or less discussion and amendment the bills already passed by the House of Commons. Later we shall learn why it is that the Senate is not a more important parliamentary body.

5. The House of Commons.

The laws are really made in the House of Commons. The leader of the government is nearly always a member of this House and guides it in its work. If he should happen to be a member of the Senate, he must have some one recognized as the leader of the House of Commons in his place. But such an arrangement is not a safe one in our parliament. Besides the leader of the government, most of the members of his cabinet, that is, those who are directly associated with him in the government of the country, have seats in the House of Commons. We usually speak of the leader and his cabinet as the "government." They must either have the support of a majority of the members of the House of Commons, or give up their places to those who are able to obtain a majority.

It is their duty, while they are in power, to see that the laws which are necessary for carrying on the work of the nation, are properly passed by parliament. Bills introduced at the wish of the government are called "government measures." They may be brought in either by members of the government themselves or by private members in whom they have confidence. If a government measure does not pass, the government must resign or ask the governor-general to allow a new election to be held. Therefore, the defeat of a government measure in the House is a very serious matter and hardly ever happens. For the government usually finds out beforehand whether its supporters are willing to allow the bill to pass or not.

But sometimes the members of the government may feel that a certain measure which they desire to bring in, is so important that it must be placed before the House, and yet that it is in danger of being rejected. What they will probably do, will be to endeavour to put this measure, if possible, in such form

as to render it more acceptable to their followers and induce them to change their minds. Moreover, supporters of the government do not like to see their side beaten, and besides, members of the House do not usually wish to have an election held before the regular time, because elections are uncertain and expensive. Therefore, the government generally finds it an easy matter to persuade its followers to assist in passing all the legislation that is required.

In addition to the measures which the government introduces, a great many bills are brought in by private members. Some of these pass, many do not pass, while others never really come before the House at all. We shall be able to understand this part of the subject better when later we study how parliament does its work.

NOTE.—Before a proposed law has passed the houses of parliament and has been assented to by the governor-general, it is known as a "bill." Afterwards it is called an "act of parliament" or a "statute." An act of parliament may come into force as a "law," as soon as it has passed the Houses and received the royal assent, or it may be intended to come into force at a later time.

Questions.

1. What are the three kinds of work to be done in the governing of a country?

2. Of what does parliament consist?

3. By whom is the governor-general appointed? What are his duties? Who is the governor-general at the present time?

4. When may the governor-general "reserve" a bill?

5. What special meaning does the word "government" have in politics?

6. What are "government measures"?

7. What is the difference between a "bill" and an "act"?

8. Commit to memory the following lines:

You ask me, why, tho' ill at ease,
  Within this region I subsist,
  Whose spirits falter in the mist,
And languish for the purple seas.

It is the land that freemen till,
  That sober-suited Freedom chose,
  The land, where girt with friends or foes
A man may speak the thing he will;

A land of settled government,
  A land of just and old renown,
  Where Freedom slowly broadens down
From precedent to precedent.

—*Tennyson.*

TOPIC IV.

How Parliament Does Business.

1. The Speaker.

We shall now take up more fully the study of the two houses of parliament, and see how they carry on their work and how the members of each are chosen. We shall speak chiefly of the House of Commons, and mention the Senate only when the latter differs in some important respect from the Commons.

The House of Commons is like any public meeting, and must have a chairman to see that business is conducted in a proper way. The chairman is called the "speaker." He is elected by the House, when it first meets after the parliamentary elections. He is one of the supporters of the government, because the government have the majority in the House, and thus can always secure the election of one of their own friends. But as soon as he becomes speaker, he is expected to be impartial, that is, to see that all members are fairly treated in the debates, no matter whether they are supporters of the

government or not. There is also elected a deputy or assistant speaker.

The speaker of the Senate is not elected by the Senate, but is appointed by the "governor-general-in-council," which means, as we shall find out later, the government.

2. Other Officers of the Houses.

There are certain other officers in the Houses, who are not members of parliament, but are appointed to help with the carrying on of business. For example, there is a clerk, with many assistants under him, who has charge of the journals or records of what the House has done, the translation of documents, and a great many other such matters.

Another officer in the Commons is the sergeant-at-arms, who is in some respects the policeman of the House. If a member will not obey the speaker or is disorderly, the sergeant-at-arms arrests him or has him removed. He also looks after the furniture of the House, and has charge of the pages, or little messenger boys, who wait on the members, carrying books, taking messages and the like.

It is very interesting to watch these little fellows running about on their various duties, while a meeting of the House is going on. Another duty of the sergeant-at-arms is to walk in front of the speaker on the proper occasions, carrying the mace, the symbol of the House's authority.

3. The Speech from the Throne.

Parliament must meet at least once a year. The governor-general who, as always, follows in this matter the advice of the leader of the government, sets the day for parliament to assemble. When the day comes, he himself or some person representing him, generally the Chief Justice of Canada, goes in great state to the parliament buildings, accompanied by a bodyguard of soldiers. He takes his seat on a throne in the chamber where the Senate meets, and then sends a message to the members of the House of Commons to leave their own chamber and come to the Senate.

When they arrive, he reads a short address in English and French which mentions what business the government is going to ask parliament

to do during the session. This is called the "speech from the throne." It is not written by the governor-general, as one might suppose, but by the leader of the government. When this brief ceremony is over, the governor-general goes away, and the members of the House of Commons return to their own chamber. In due time the address is discussed and a reply to it is prepared.

All these doings seem rather strange and formal to us nowadays, but they meant a great deal long ago in England. In those times the speech was a real one from the king himself, and often parliament was very unwilling to do what he desired. So the reply was then a very real thing too, and was drawn up by members sometimes at the risk of their lives. But all this is long since changed, though the old forms are still kept up.

4. Good Manners in Parliament.

While speaking in the House of Commons, a member must always address his remarks to the speaker and not to the other members. He is not allowed to call any member by his name, but

must describe him as "the honourable member for North York," or "the honourable member for Calgary," or whatever the member's constituency may be. This is done so that debates in the House may be as dignified as possible, and that members may be less tempted to say evil things of one another.

It is the duty of the speaker to check the use of all improper terms in debate. For example, no member, no matter who he may be or how much he thinks himself to be in the right, is allowed to call another member a "scoundrel." In moments of excitement members sometimes so far forget themselves as to use such violent language, but the speaker of the House always requires that an apology be made.

5. Debate.

As in any public meeting, a question is brought before the House in the form of a motion made by one member and seconded by another, except that two days before, notice must be given that such a motion will be made. In the debate on a motion each member is

allowed to speak only once. The mover is, however, permitted to reply.

But when a freer and fuller discussion is desired so that all points may be brought out, the House goes into "committee." This is always done in the case of bills, since it is advisable to have all details studied closely as a means of preventing mistakes. When the House goes into committee, the speaker leaves the chair, and the deputy speaker or a chairman presides in his place. The House may then be said to be in its "working clothes."

6. A Division.

When the debate is over, and it is uncertain whether the majority of the House is for or against the motion, a "division" is demanded. All the absent members are called in, for it is the bad habit of some of the members to remain out of the House a good deal of the time and, when summoned, to rush in to vote without having heard very much of the debate.

When all are seated, the speaker asks those who are in favour of the motion to stand. The clerks then take down the name of each member

who is standing. Next those who are against the motion are requested to rise, and their names are taken down in the same way. When the names are all counted, the speaker states that the motion has been "lost" or "carried," as the case may be. The speaker himself never takes part in the voting, unless the votes for and against a motion are exactly equal. In that case he gives his vote and decides the question.

7. The Senate and the Commons.

When a bill has passed the House of Commons, it is sent on to the Senate, which considers it in the same way as the Commons have already done. If it passes the Senate, it then goes to the governor-general to be assented to in the name of the king. Sometimes, however, the Senate makes changes in a bill, and if the two Houses cannot agree about these, the bill is dropped. But if the Houses reach an agreement, the bill is sent on to the governor-general as before.

8. Committees.

Besides the "Committee of the Whole House," which has already been mentioned, there are smaller committees, or groups of

members, chosen to consider particular bills or other matters and to report their opinion about them to the House. Each committee has its chairman, and it does its work in the same way as the committee of the whole house. If a bill does not pass the committee which has been chosen to study and discuss it, there is little probability that it will pass the House, at least during the existing session of parliament. In such a case you will probably read in the newspapers that it has been "killed in committee."

9. Supremacy of the House of Commons.

The House of Commons holds the purse of the nation, and this is the true reason why the government must have its support or resign. Unless the House is willing, no tax can be collected by the Dominion government, and no money paid out for any purpose beyond a few matters expressly mentioned in the constitution. It is evident that the work of government could not long go on, if there were no money to pay those employed in the public service, such as the clerks in the parliament buildings

and the Dominion officials throughout the country.

A bill that provides for the paying of money or the levying of a tax, must first be passed in the House of Commons. Then it is sent to the Senate, which cannot make any change in it, but must either pass it as it stands, or else reject it altogether. Further, even in the House of Commons, no private member can propose such a bill, but only a member of the government. For the government knows, or should know, how much money it needs and can ask for the proper amount, while a private member could hardly have such accurate knowledge. Besides, if the government did not have this matter entirely in its own hands, it could not fairly be blamed, when mistakes were made in levying too high a tax on the people or in paying out money improperly.

It will be seen from what has been said that the House of Commons is practically supreme. If it does not approve of what the government is doing, it can stop everything by simply shutting up the purse of the nation. But

nowadays the House has never to resort to such an extreme measure. All it has to do is to show by a vote that it no longer has "confidence" in the government, and the latter at once resigns.

10. Senators.

We shall now study how the members of parliament are chosen. A senator is appointed by the "governor-general-in-council," that is, by the government. He remains a member of the Senate so long as he lives, unless he resigns, stays away from parliament for two sessions together, leaves Canada and becomes a citizen of a foreign country, fails in business, commits a crime, or goes to reside in a province other than the one for which he has been appointed.

Before he can be chosen, he must be at least thirty years of age, be a British subject, be worth at least $4,000, and live in the province for which he is to be appointed. A Quebec senator must also live in the particular division of the province for which he is selected, or own property there. The number of Senators is :

For Ontario	24
" Quebec	24
" Nova Scotia	10
" New Brunswick	10
" Prince Edward Island	4
" Manitoba	4
" Saskatchewan	4
" Alberta	4
" British Columbia	3
	87

11. Members of the House of Commons.

Members of the House of Commons are elected by the people of Canada. But not everybody has a vote. The laws about the matter differ in the different provinces, but, as a rule, all men of the full age of twenty-one years, who are British subjects and are not criminals or insane, have the right to vote. In one or two of the provinces it is necessary also to own a small amount of property, or to pay rent to a certain amount, or to fulfil some other conditions before being allowed to vote. Indians do not usually have the right to vote. In none of the provinces are women permitted to vote in parliamentary elections.

Before a person can be elected to the House of Commons, he must be a British subject, but need not own property or live in the province or district for which he seeks to be elected. If a man who has committed a crime is elected, the House of Commons will not allow him to take his seat, and the district for which he is elected may just as well be without a representative.

12. The Number of Members in the Commons.

The number of members elected to the House of Commons in the elections of 1908 was:

For Ontario	86
" Quebec	65
" New Brunswick	13
" Nova Scotia	18
" Prince Edward Island	4
" Manitoba	10
" Saskatchewan	10
" Alberta	7
" British Columbia	7
" Yukon Territory	1
	221

The question may be asked, how is it that there were just 221 members in the House of Commons in the year 1908? We shall try to find the answer. The number of members depends on the population of the Province of Quebec. This province must, according to the constitution, always have 65 members. Then, when Quebec is given 65 members for a certain population, the other provinces are given the number that is proper for their population. If the population of another province is greater than that of Quebec, that province will have more members than Quebec. Consequently, the Province of Ontario has always had more members than Quebec. But if the population of any province is less than that of Quebec, it will have fewer members. The Province of Manitoba, for example, has always had fewer members than Quebec. So to find the number of members a province may have, is only a question in arithmetic which can be easily solved.

Now, if we take the population of Quebec and that of Ontario as a little smaller than they really are, we shall be able to have

easier numbers with which to deal. We shall, therefore, suppose that the population of Quebec is 1,625,000. The province must have 65 members, and, dividing 1,625,000 by 65, we find that it will have one member for every 25,000 people. Further, if we take the population of Ontario as 2,150,000, all we have to do in order to find the number of members to which it is entitled, is to divide this number by 25,000. The result is 86.

In the same way the number of members for each of the other provinces can be found, if we know the population. 25,000 is called in this case the "unit of representation," for it is the number of people who have a right to one member of parliament to represent them. In order to avoid fractions, we have taken an easy example, but when fractions occur, those that are less than one-half are not counted, and those over one-half are reckoned as equal to 1.

The following are additional examples to be solved: 1. The population of Quebec in 1901 was really 1,648,898 and that of Ontario 2,182,947 instead of the easier numbers we

chose. Find the unit of representation and the number of members for Ontario.

2. If the population of Quebec grows to 1,826,481 and that of British Columbia to 323,400, what will be the unit of representation, and the number of members which British Columbia will have?

13. Census.

The census is taken, that is, the population of Canada is counted, every ten years in those years which end in 1, as 1891, 1901, 1911. After the taking of the census, parliament passes a law to give to each province its proper number of members, and this number cannot be changed till after the next census. Some of the provinces may be assigned fewer members as the result of a new census, because the population of Quebec is growing fast and so the unit of representation is increasing. Thus Prince Edward Island came into the Dominion with 6 members, and now has only 4. But the western provinces always gain members when a change is made, because their population is increasing very rapidly.

In 1908 the number of members was reckoned according to the census of 1901. Saskatchewan and Alberta, however, had gained members by a census taken in 1906 in accordance with the acts of parliament by which they were formed into provinces. Yukon Territory had been given 1 member by a special act of parliament.

14. Constituencies.

Having learned how the number of members for each province is determined, we have yet to consider how the provinces are divided into districts for the election of these members. Such divisions for electoral purposes are commonly called "constituencies." Each constituency ordinarily elects one member. But sometimes, as in the case of a city like Ottawa, which is from its size entitled to have two members, no division is made, and the one large constituency is asked to elect two members.

To divide a province into the proper number of constituencies with a fairly equal population, is not an easy matter. In whatever manner it may be done, there is nearly always a great deal of complaint that the government has acted

unfairly. This subject will be taken up more fully under Topic VI.

NOTES.—A "bill," before it can pass the House, must be read three times. At the second reading debate upon it takes place.

The "Territories." Those parts of the Dominion that are not included in any of the provinces are called "territories." So long as a territory has a small population, it is governed directly by the Dominion. But as it becomes settled, it is given more and more power in local matters, until at last it is formed into a province. There are at present two territorial divisions in the Dominion: (1) Yukon Territory, electing its own governing body, the "territorial council," and (2) the Northwest Territories, having as yet no local government. Territories may be given representation in Parliament, but not necessarily on a strict basis of population.

QUESTIONS.

1. How is the speaker of the House of Commons chosen? Mention some of his duties.

2. What is the "speech from the throne"?

3. How is a question brought up for discussion in the House of Commons? How is a "division" taken?

4. What are the stages in the passing of a bill?

5. Tell why the House of Commons is supreme.

6. What are the qualifications necessary for a senator? For a member of the House of Commons?

7. In what way is the number of members in the House of Commons determined? What are "constituencies"?

8. Write a composition on the thought contained in the following lines, taking them as applicable to Canada:

LIBERTY.

On foreign mountains may the Sun refine
The grape's soft juice, and mellow it to wine,
With citron groves adorn a distant soil,
And the fat olive swell with floods of oil:
We envy not the warmer clime, that lies
In ten degrees of more indulgent skies,
Nor at the coarseness of our heaven repine,
Though o'er our heads the frozen Pleiads shine:
'Tis liberty that crowns Britannia's isle
And makes her barren rocks and her bleak
mountains smile.

—*Addison.*

TOPIC V.

THE PREMIER AND THE CABINET.

1. Introduction.

Mention has been made many times already of the "government" and the "leader of the government." We shall now try to show what is meant by these terms. The word "government" is here used in a special sense, and denotes the body of men who really rule the nation, for, as we already know, the king or his representative, the governor-general, has no actual power. This body is also called the

"cabinet." Further, it is known as the "executive" or the "administration," because it executes or carries out the laws and conducts the business of the nation, while the duty of parliament is chiefly to legislate or make the laws.

At the head of the cabinet stands the person whom we have thus far called the leader of the government, but who is more usually known as the "prime minister," or "premier." The first form of the name, prime minister, is the one always employed in Great Britain, but not often used in Canada except in speaking of British affairs. The second form, premier, is the French word for "first," with the word "minister" omitted, and so means exactly the same as "prime minister," or "first minister." We almost invariably employ the form "premier" in speaking of Canadian affairs.

But why is the word "minister" used? "Minister" means a "servant." Formerly the prime minister was the servant of the king, and carried out his commands. Now he is really the servant of the nation, for it is

ultimately through its will that he becomes the head of the executive, or cabinet. The other members of the cabinet are likewise called "ministers."

2. Appointment of a Premier.

When a new premier is to be appointed, the governor-general sends for the person whom he thinks the majority of the House of Commons will support, and asks him if he will be his adviser and form a cabinet. If the person chosen feels that he can secure the support of the House of Commons, he sets about the selection of a certain number of men who may be willing to become his fellow ministers.

This is an easy matter, if it is pretty certain that the House of Commons will support the new premier. Otherwise it may be very difficult or impossible. In the latter event the new premier must go back to the governor-general and say that he cannot form a cabinet. He then usually gives the name of a person who he thinks will be able to get proper support in the House. The governor-general will at once send for this person, and ask him to be premier and form

his cabinet. When the latter has his cabinet chosen, he reports the names of the members to the governor-general for approval.

3. Members of the Cabinet in Parliament.

The premier, when he is first chosen, need not be a member of parliament, though he almost always is, but he must become a member as soon as possible. He usually prefers to belong to the House of Commons; but though he would be permitted to be a member of the Senate instead of the Commons, such an arrangement would not work well, for in that case he would not be able to take a direct part in what was being done in the House whose support is so necessary to him. The other ministers are chosen, sometimes from among men already in parliament, but nearly as often from among those outside. All ministers must, however, like the premier, become members of either the House of Commons or the Senate. But usually only a few of the ministers are members of the Senate.

It is important to note that, even if a minister is a member of the House of Commons before his appointment, he must be

re-elected to the House as a minister and member of the cabinet. The reason is that cabinet ministers get a special salary from the nation for their work, and no member of parliament is allowed to accept any salary from the nation beyond the payment he receives as an ordinary member, unless the people of his constituency express their willingness by re-electing him. The new minister is usually re-elected, because it is considered a great honour and advantage to a constituency to have as its representative a member of the cabinet.

4. Supreme Power of the Premier.

It will be seen from what has been said before, that so long as the House of Commons gives its support, the premier is the most powerful man in the nation. The other members of the cabinet are really appointed by him, and, moreover, if he resigns, they too must resign. The governor-general must, so far as Canadian affairs go, absolutely follow his advice.

The only real check on the premier's power is the House of Commons. But the members of the House are not always free to do as they like

and vote against the premier at any time they may so wish. Nearly all the members of the House belong to one of two political parties. Of one of the parties the premier is the leader, and he is almost sure of being supported by the members of his party on all necessary occasions. How this comes about will be explained under Topic VI. Therefore, with the steady support of his party behind him, the premier can carry on the work of government very much in the way he thinks fit, and is thus the nation's real ruler.

5. Unity in the Cabinet.

But on all important matters the premier consults with his fellow ministers. Regular meetings of the cabinet are held, and after discussion the members come to an agreement on each question. If, however, a member feels that he cannot accept the decision of the premier and the rest of the cabinet on a matter which is regarded as important, he is under obligation to resign. For it was long ago decided that our government cannot proceed in a satisfactory way, unless the ministers are all of the same opinion on essential points. Everything that is

said in the discussions at a meeting of the cabinet, is kept absolutely secret.

6. Order-in-Council.

When the cabinet has reached an agreement about some matter of business, as, for example, the appointment of an official, the acceptance of a tender from a contractor for some public building, or any one of the many other matters that come up in the work of government, the decision is written down in due form and submitted to the governor-general to be signed by him. It is then called an order-in-council and goes into effect.

NOTES.—"Governor-General-in-Council." This term is used in the case of all official acts of the cabinet. It denotes that the decision of the premier and his ministers has been communicated to the governor-general, and has been accepted by him.

"Privy Council." This historic body formerly gave advice to the king, when he asked for its opinion on any matter of state. It is still retained, but at the present day has no duties whatever. Each cabinet minister must, however, become a member of it by taking a prescribed oath. Though he may resign from the cabinet, he always remains a member of this ancient and shadowy council. Our privy council is called "the King's Privy Council for Canada," and must be distinguished from the British Privy Council.

The word "crown" is often used instead of the name of the king, and practically means the nation, as, for example, in the term "minister of the crown."

Questions.

1. What position does the premier occupy in the government of the country?

2. How is the premier chosen?

3. Why is it advisable that the premier should be a member of the House of Commons?

4. How is it that the premier is supreme in the cabinet and the House of Commons?

5. What is an "order-in-council"?

6. What is the meaning of "govenor-general-in-council" and "King's Privy Council for Canada"?

7. Write an account of a real or imaginary person who rose to the position of prime minister, as described in the following poem:

Dost thou look back on what hath been,
As some divinely gifted man,
Whose life in low estate began
And on a simple village green;

Who breaks his birth's invidious bar,
And grasps the skirts of happy chance,
And breasts the blows of circumstance,
And grapples with his evil star;

Who makes by force his merit known,
And lives to clutch the golden keys,
To mould a mighty state's decrees,
And shape the whisper of the throne;

And moving up from high to higher,
Becomes on Fortune's crowning slope
The pillar of a people's hope,
The centre of a world's desire;

Yet feels as in a pensive dream,
When all his active powers are still,
A distant dearness in the hill,
A secret sweetness in the stream;

The limit of his narrower fate,
While yet beside its vocal springs
He played at counsellors and kings,
With one that was his earliest mate;

Who ploughs with pain his native lea
And reaps the labour of his hands,
Or in the furrow musing stands:
"Does my old friend remember me?"

—*Tennyson, In Memoriam, LXIV.*

TOPIC VI.

Political Parties.

1. Public Questions.

There arise from time to time certain public questions about which men have strong opinions. For example, many are in favour of placing heavy duties on goods manufactured abroad, so as to prevent their importation into the country, thus

giving our manufacturers an opportunity of selling more of their goods in the Canadian market. Many other people advocate low duties or no duties at all on foreign goods, so that Canadians may be able to buy what they want as cheaply as possible without regard to the interests of the manufacturer and his workmen. Such is the tariff question which has played a great part in our political history. Other questions which have arisen are, that of separate schools in Manitoba and the new provinces, that of Senate reform, that of the national ownership of railways, and that of the prohibition of the sale of intoxicating liquors.

2. Origin of the Party System.

It is natural for all who take one side of a public question to form themselves into an association for the purpose of securing the adoption of laws in harmony with their particular views. The way to make sure that certain laws will be enacted, is to bring about the election to parliament of a majority of members in favour of them. Consequently, there is very good reason why persons who agree among

themselves on an important public question, should establish the kind of association which is called a political party.

But we must observe also that it is not often that a political party is successful, if the party is formed solely because of particular views on one question, no matter how important this may be. It is very difficult so to interest the great body of the citizens in a single question that they will unite on account of it alone aside from other public matters. But, in the course of long years of political discussion, the majority of the people have become separated into two great divisions. These divisions are known as the Conservative and Liberal parties.

The leaders of each, since they are anxious to secure a majority in the House and thus gain control of the government, try by every possible means to persuade voters of the merits of their own side. If they think that a certain public question will "catch" a large number of votes, they will be very ready to take it up, even though personally they might prefer to leave the matter alone. In this way, all important

questions are as a rule brought under the consideration of the people, and, in consequence, there is on ordinary occasions no need for forming a special political party. It is only when neither of the old parties will assist in the discussion of a public matter, that a new party may come into existence. There is, however, one great disadvantage in our having these permanent political divisions. Many persons become so much interested in the mere success of their own party, that they seem to care very little whether the public measures which it is advocating, are good or bad.

3. Political Platforms.

Some time before the elections a party usually draws up what is called its "platform," that is, a statement of what its views are in regard to the "issues," or important questions before the people. This statement represents the "policy" of the party. Great care is taken to show that this policy is in agreement with the "principles," or general ideas of government which the party is supposed always to follow and to hold sacred. We hear a great deal about these principles

during the "campaign," or period of public discussion that comes just before the elections.

A party usually has a "campaign cry," which is supposed to give the main issue in the most attractive way. These campaign cries sound very strange after all the excitement is over. Some of those which have been used are, "The old flag, the old policy and the old leader," "It is time for a change," "Five years more of the full dinner pail."

4. Government and Opposition.

The political party which has the majority in the House of Commons and of which the premier is the leader, is called the government party, and the other which opposes the government, is known as the "opposition." The head of the latter party has no special name, and is called simply the "leader of the opposition."

5. Nominating Conventions.

One of the first duties of a political party before an election is to endeavour to have suitable men "nominated" in every constituency, that is, to have them put forward publicly for election to the House. These men, when

selected, are called "candidates." The usual way in which a party chooses its candidate, is to ask its friends in each part of a constituency to meet and elect delegates, or representatives, to attend a general meeting, or "convention," to be held in some central place.

At the convention a number of names are proposed, and a vote is taken. After voting on all the names, the convention can generally narrow its choice down to two or three that obtain a high number of votes. The person who finally secures the highest vote, is chosen as the candidate of the party. Then the one who comes next to him in the number of votes received, generally moves that the choice of the convention "be made unanimous," and promises that he himself, just as the rest of the convention, will accept the party candidate and will work hard to secure his election to parliament.

Even though it may be well understood that the member at the time representing the constituency in parliament will again be a candidate at the elections, a convention of his party is usually called, and he is nominated or not, as the

convention thinks fit. Sometimes conventions, when summoned, decide not to put a candidate "in the field," if they see that their party would have little chance of winning.

6. The Campaign.

As soon as a candidate is chosen, he must set about preparing his "campaign." A number of the party workers help him, but he must do a great deal himself. He must try to meet as many persons as possible in the various parts of the constituency. For this purpose he goes about speaking at public meetings which are arranged for him, and is introduced by the local party men to individual voters.

He or his friends have to ask a great many directly for their votes or, as it is said, "canvass" them. It is an unfortunate thing that so many will not vote for a candidate, unless they are personally solicited. They seem to forget that voting is one of the highest duties which they have to perform as citizens, and that they should vote for the candidate they believe to be the best, whether they have ever been canvassed or not.

Sometimes also money is paid for votes. This "bribing" of electors is one of the greatest crimes that can be committed against the nation, and the person who receives such money, is quite as guilty as the person who pays it. If bribery were ever to become general, it would mean the end of liberty and good government, and thus what our ancestors toiled during a thousand years to gain would be thrown away. There may be bribery, too, in other ways than by money. For instance, some voters may be promised positions in the public service, grants from parliament, or special favours of various kinds. Such methods are all equally bad from a moral point of view and all equally injurious to the nation.

7. Doubtful and Safe Constituencies.

While the candidate is working in his own constituency, the leader and other prominent men in the party make a tour through the country. They address meetings in what are considered suitable places, especially in those constituencies which the party is afraid of losing, though it has won them at the preceding election, or which it does not now hold but

has hopes of winning. In fact, on these "doubtful" constituencies the fate of the party ordinarily depends.

On the other hand, there are some divisions that are almost sure to elect a Conservative as their member, while there are others that are quite as certain to elect a Liberal. Now it is just because of such circumstances that a government may have a great temptation to face. For, when a province is being divided into constituencies, a government, if it likes, can so make the division, that as many as possible of the new constituencies may be "safe" ones for its own party, and as many as possible "doubtful" for the opposition. For example, if a certain constituency is a doubtful one for the government, and there happens to be close by, a district that gives a good majority in its favour, all the government has to do in order to make the constituency probably a safe one, is to add this district. Or the same result may be gained by taking away a part of the constituency that gives a large opposition majority. This unfair way of dividing a province is called a "gerrymander," from the name of an American politician.

NOTES.—"Seat" is a term often used for constituency. "Elector" is another word for "voter." "The country" is a term frequently employed in politics to mean the electorate, or the whole body of voters of the nation.

QUESTIONS.

1. Mention some important public questions that have arisen from time to time in Canada.

2. How do political parties originate?

3. Explain the terms, "platform," "issue," "policy," "campaign."

4. What is the "opposition?"

5. What is a "nominating convention"?

6. Give an account of a political meeting which you have attended.

7. Who were the candidates in your constituency at the last Dominion election, and how did they conduct their campaigns?

8. Explain "canvass," "bribery," "gerrymander."

9. Learn by heart the following:

FREEDOM.

Her open eyes desire the truth.
The wisdom of a thousand years
Is in them. May perpetual youth
Keep dry their light from tears;

That her fair form may stand and shine,
Make bright our days and light our dreams,
Turning to scorn with lips divine
The falsehood of extremes!

—*Tennyson.*

TOPIC VII.

How the Elections are Held.

1. Sessions of Parliament.

According to our constitution, the British North America Act, parliament must meet at least once a year. This meeting together for the purpose of making laws and transacting other public business, is called a "session" of parliament. Besides the one ordinary session in the year, a special session is sometimes held when there is need for it. The session may be long or short according to circumstances. The ordinary length is about four or five months.

Members of the Senate and the House of Commons are each paid a salary, called an "indemnity," of $2,500 for attendance during a session. If, however, a member is absent from the House a certain number of days, he loses a part of the indemnity. Moreover, if a session does not last longer than thirty days, he receives only a certain sum per day. The salary of the governor-general is $50,000 per year.

2. Prorogation.

At the close of the session parliament is "prorogued." This term means that parliament is dismissed for the time being, but is to be called to meet again at a certain date, when there will be a new session. At prorogation all bills that have not yet passed the Houses are dropped, and at the next session they must be presented again, as if they had never been before parliament.

On the occasion of prorogation the governor-general comes in state to the parliament buildings, as at the opening, and gives the royal assent to the bills that have been passed during the session. He also reads a short speech, reviewing the business of the session, and thanking the members for the work they have done.

3. Dissolution.

The longest period a parliament is allowed to last is five years; but very few ever continue so long. The ordinary duration is about four years. The government can have a parliament "dissolved," or ended, at any time, if the governor-general consents. and, of course, he

will hardly ever refuse except for the gravest reasons.

If a parliament is permitted to run its full course, there is difficulty in holding a satisfactory session near the end. The opposition can prevent legislation by simply talking away the time in committee of the whole, where any member may speak as often as he likes. This method of delaying business is known as "obstruction." When "obstructing," members only pretend to discuss the bill before them, their chief aim being to keep on talking as long as they can. Therefore, it is plain that, since parliament must come to an end by a certain day, the last session can be made nearly useless and the government be placed in an unpleasant position before the country.

Another reason why a parliament hardly ever lasts its full period, is that the government naturally likes to choose a time for "going to the country," when it feels that the chances of winning are most in its favour. If it should allow a parliament to last into the fifth year, it would have less choice of a suitable

moment for dissolution. This must be regarded as a rather unfair advantage which the government can take of the opposition. Besides these reasons, there is no doubt always a strong desire in the government party "to have it over" as soon as possible, when in any case election day must come before long.

4. Premature Dissolution.

There are, however, occasions when the length of a parliament may be much shortened. One occurs when some very important matter comes up for consideration, and the members of the government wish to know whether or not the people approve of their policy with respect to it. The governor-general is asked to dissolve parliament, and the "campaign" is fought chiefly on that one great question. If the government obtains a majority, it knows that the people wish it to carry out its policy. If it is defeated, the opposition comes into power as a new government.

Again, an occasion for dissolving parliament may arise when the government is defeated in the House of Commons on some

important question, such as a government measure. The government may ask for a dissolution in order to appeal to the country; or it may resign. If it resigns, the governor-general requests the leader of the opposition to form a new government. Should the new premier feel that he can get the support of the House, he may go on with the work of the session. But, if he is aware that he will not secure sufficient support, he asks that parliament be dissolved, and appeals to the people in the hope of obtaining a favourable majority in the new parliament.

5. Official Nomination of Candidates.

When for any reason it is decided to hold the parliamentary elections, writs, or orders, are sent out in the name of the king to special officers appointed in all the constituencies, and known as "returning officers." The writs state when the nomination of candidates is to take place. If only one candidate presents himself in a constituency, he is declared elected. Such an election is known as election by "acclamation." But if more than one candidate is

nominated, there must be a vote taken one week later throughout the constituency at various places selected for the purpose.

At this regular or official nomination those who have been already chosen by the parties as candidates, are duly nominated by their supporters. Often no other candidates come forward, and the voters are forced to choose between these two. Sometimes, however, a third party, as the Labour party or the Socialist party, may put forth a candidate. Or a person may decide to be a candidate without the support of any party. Such a candidate is usually called an Independent Conservative or an Independent Liberal, as the case may be.

6. Nomination Papers.

The official nomination of candidates takes place in this way. At the time set by law, twelve o'clock noon, on the day appointed, the returning officer goes to a public hall, and there waits for nominations till two o'clock. A nomination must be in written form, and be signed by twenty-five electors. The person nominated must give his written consent, unless

he is absent from the province at the time. The sum of two hundred dollars must also be handed in to be kept as a deposit and returned, unless the candidate fails to obtain at least one-half of the number of votes polled in favour of the person elected.

7. How the Voting is Done.

A week after nomination day the elections are held. Suitable places are chosen throughout the constituency as voting or "polling" places, and each is put under the charge of a deputy returning officer.

The vote is by ballot and is secret. A ballot is a sheet of paper having a detachable slip or counterfoil at the side, and provided with a stub by which it may be bound into a book containing twenty-five, fifty, or one hundred ballots, as is most convenient. On the front of the ballot appears the name of each candidate, with his residence and occupation. The names are in alphabetical order, numbered, and separated from one another by broad black lines. On the back, the stub and counterfoil have the same printed number, while the body of the ballot

has the returning officer's stamp, the place and date of the elections, and the name of the person who printed the ballots.

If you go to a polling place to record your vote, you notice, as you enter, besides the deputy returning officer and his assistant, known as the "poll clerk," a certain number of men, commonly called "scrutineers," who have been chosen by the political parties to watch over the interests of their candidates, and to see that persons who have no right to vote are not given a ballot. There is in the room a list of all those who have votes, and, if your name is on it, and the officials present are satisfied that you are the person you claim to be and not somebody else trying to vote under your name, you receive from the deputy returning officer a ballot, on the back of which he has put his initials. On the counter-foil also is written a number corresponding to the number placed opposite your name in the "poll book," in which a record is kept of all those who vote.

You are told to retire to some small room opening from the larger one, or to some space

screened off from it, and there you find a pencil with which you are to mark your ballot. Absolutely all you must do, is to make a cross X opposite the name of the man for whom you wish to vote. If you put any other mark on your ballot, you "spoil" it, so that it will not be counted. Then you should fold your ballot so as to show the initials of the deputy returning officer on the outside.

After that you go with it to the deputy returning officer. He looks at the number on the counterfoil and his initials, to make sure that it is the same ballot as the one which he gave you. Then he tears off and destroys the counterfoil, and puts your ballot in the ballot box that has been provided to contain all the ballots cast at this polling place. Meanwhile, the poll clerk records in the poll book the fact that you have voted.

In case the officials are not sure that you have a right to vote, they can ask that you be sworn before receiving a ballot. If you cannot swear that you are entitled to vote, you will not be given a ballot and will be asked to withdraw.

The voting lasts from 9 o'clock in the morning till 5 o'clock in the afternoon. When the poll is closed, the votes are counted as rapidly as possible, and the results are carried by eager messengers to the nearest telegraph or telephone office, so that it is known everywhere in a very short time who has been elected member for the constituency. There may, of course, be mistakes made in this first summing up, and the result is not known exactly, until the returning officer himself a few days later counts again all the votes in the constituency, and makes his official statement.

If the number of votes given for the candidates is very nearly even, there is usually held what is called a "recount" before a judge. The chief difficulty that usually presents itself, is whether certain ballots are to be counted or not. Some electors may have voted for more than the proper number of candidates, may have placed some marks beside the cross on their ballot, or may have made some other mistake. The judge decides on all these points, and his decision settles the question of the election,

unless there has been bribery or other wrong doing. In the latter event, the case comes up for trial in a court of law.

The elections are held throughout the Dominion on the same day, except in some large constituencies where the population is widely scattered and voters may have to go a long way to vote. Such constituencies are Chicoutimi and Saguenay, and Gaspé, in the Province of Quebec, and Comox-Atlin, Kootenay, and Yale-Cariboo, in the Province of British Columbia, and Yukon.

8. By-Elections.

Elections for the choosing of a new parliament are called general elections. But often vacancies occur in the House of Commons at other times, when a member resigns or dies, or when a seat is declared vacant by a court of law for bribery or some other reason. In the case of a vacancy for whatever cause, the speaker of the House gives his "warrant," or permission, for holding a special election in the constituency concerned. Such an election is ordinarily called a "by-election." It is conducted in exactly the same

way as are the general elections, except in so far as it has to do with one constituency only and not with the entire country. If there are several vacancies at one time, the necessary by-elections are held as far as possible on the same day.

NOTES.—The "Closure." This is a means adopted in the British parliament to prevent "obstruction." A time-table is drawn up beforehand, showing how long discussion will be allowed in committee of the whole on each clause or division of a bill. When the time is up, all debate must cease, and the clause is straigthway voted on, and adopted or rejected. Then at once discussion on the next clause begins, and continues for the period allotted for the purpose. Thus it becomes manifestly impossible for members to "talk out" a bill.

The "Ballot." The abbreviations on the back are R.O. (Returning Officer), D.R.O. (Deputy Returning Officer), P.B. (Poll Book).

QUESTIONS.

1. What is the meaning of "prorogue" and "dissolve" as applied to parliament?

2. What causes may bring about the dissolution of parliament?

3. Tell how candidates are officially nominated for election.

4. Describe how an elector casts his vote.

5. What are the duties of a returning officer, a deputy returning officer, and a poll clerk?

6. Where was the polling place in your neighbourhood at the last Dominion election? In favour of what

political party did your municipality or polling division give a majority?

7. What political party is at present in power in the Dominion, and what is its majority in the House of Commons?

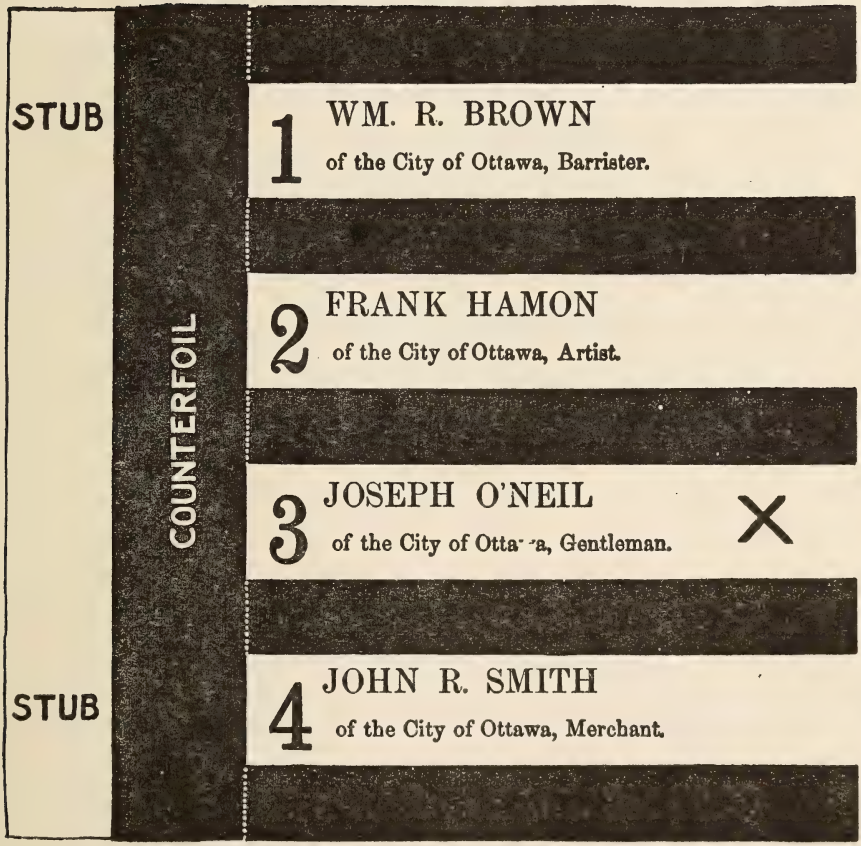
8. The following passage contains advice for leaders of political parties who desire the welfare of their country:

> Nor toil for title, place or touch
> Of pension, neither count on praise:
> It grows to guerdon after-days:
> Nor deal in watchwords overmuch:
>
> Not clinging to some ancient saw;
> Not mastered by some modern term;
> Not swift nor slow to change, but firm:
> And in its season bring the law.
>
> —*Tennyson.*

Read it over and try to understand it.

Form of Ballot Paper.

Front.



Form of Ballot Paper.

(Reduced to about 2/3 original size).

No. 325

(Line of Perforations here.)

No. 325

P. B. No.....

(Line of Perforations here.)

D.-R.-O.

INITIALS.

R. O. STAMP

Back.

Electoral District of Carleton,
November 24, 1900.

James Brown, Printer,
Ottawa.

TOPIC VIII.

The Departments of Government.

1. Ministers and their Deputies.

Thus far we have been studying chiefly how the laws are made, and what share the executive, or cabinet, has in legislation. We shall now learn how the cabinet carries on the general business of the nation. All the immense amount of work that has to be done, is divided among a certain number of departments. At the head of each department is a cabinet minister. He is responsible for the kind of work that is done in his department, and is expected to answer questions about it when they are asked in parliament.

Under him is a deputy minister, who assists him, and has more direct charge of the details of the department and of the clerks and others employed. Though the cabinet minister must change, if the government is defeated and compelled to resign, the deputy minister is a permanent official. If it were otherwise, the public business might be very badly done,

when new men took hold of a department without knowledge of its special work. Cabinet ministers may come and go, but there is still a person left in charge who knows all about the business of his department.

2. List of Cabinet Ministers.

At present the cabinet ministers and their departments are as follows :

The President of the Council, who is the premier and presides at meetings of the cabinet.

The Minister of Trade and Commerce, the duties of whose department will be readily understood from the name.

The Minister of Justice, who has charge of legal matters. He sees that the laws are enforced, decides whether a man who has committed a crime shall be pardoned or not, and has the oversight of the penitentiaries of the Dominion.

The Minister of Marine and Fisheries, who has to deal with matters connected with navigation and fishing. For example, he looks after the harbours, the lighthouses, the inspection

of ships. He is also head of the Department of the Naval Service having control of matters that concern the Royal Canadian Navy and the hydrographic service.

The Minister of Militia and Defence, whose duties are with regard to our armies, fortresses, schools of instruction and military college.

The Postmaster General, the minister in charge of all the post offices and the mails.

The Minister of Labour, whose duties concern the welfare of the working men. Thus he aids in the settlement of "strikes" in accordance with an act of parliament which provides for arbitration under certain conditions. The department of labour publishes a paper called the "Labour Gazette."

The Minister of Agriculture, who has charge not only of agricultural affairs, but of many things that have little to do with farming. He deals with matters which concern the health of the people, and the quarantining of ships or their passengers, if any dangerous disease is found on board. He sees that the census is properly taken every ten years, and he is also the

minister who has to do with the granting of patents, the copyrighting of books, and the registering of trade marks.

The Minister of Public Works, who attends to the erection and repairing of all public buildings and other works (except railways and canals).

The Minister of Finance, who is the most important minister with the exception of the premier. He lays before parliament and the nation the policy of the government in regard to taxation. As the Dominion collects its taxes indirectly by means of customs and excise duties, and not directly, as our cities and towns must do, this policy comes to mean a very great deal in the buying and selling of manufactured goods. The matter will be more fully explained under Topic IX.

The Minister of Railways and Canals, who deals with affairs connected with the railways and canals of the country. The nation owns all the canals. Of the railways it possesses the Intercolonial and the Prince Edward Island Railway in the Maritime Provinces. It also

owns the National Transcontinental Railway, but has leased it to the Grand Trunk Pacific Railway Co. There is a "board of railway commissioners" appointed by the government to act as judges for the settlement of disputes with respect to railway rates, telegraph and telephone charges, and other matters connected with public services of this kind. The board has six members.

The Minister of the Interior, who has to do with the government of the Northwest Territories, the Indians, and the land which the Dominion owns in the prairie provinces.

The Minister of Customs, who has charge of the collection of the customs duties.

The Minister of Inland Revenue, who deals with the collection of the excise duties, and the inspection of weights and measures. He is also head of the Department of Mines and the Geological Survey.

The Secretary of State, who is the minister that acts as the official correspondent in matters in which the whole government is concerned. For instance, he carries on the correspondence

between the Dominion and the provinces. Besides such duties, he issues passports to Canadians who intend going abroad, puts the great seal of the Dominion on documents which require it, looks after the government printing, and buys and distributes the stationery needed in all the departments. He is also in charge of the Department of External Affairs, which attends to correspondence with the rest of the Empire and with foreign nations.

In addition to the cabinet ministers, there is a member of the government who is not a member of the cabinet. He is the Solicitor-General, whose duty it is to give legal advice to the government, and to act as counsel when the Dominion has a case in court.

3. Civil Service.

The great army of clerks and other officials, many of them men of highly trained skill, who are required in the various departments of the government, is called by the general name of the "civil service." The name was originally given to distinguish this class from the persons who are engaged in the military or the naval service

of the country. Those who wish to enter the civil service must pass an examination. The governor-general-in-council makes the appointments to the service.

Formerly appointments and promotions were often the direct result of the "influence" of political friends. But it is now intended to change all this, and to have persons selected because of their ability and fitness. For this purpose the civil service has been placed under the control of a "civil service commission," which is to act independently of politics. The commission consists of two members.

Questions.

1. What are the duties of a deputy minister?
2. How many cabinet ministers are there?
3. Who is the Premier? Who is the Minister of Finance?
4. What is the Board of Railway Commissioners?
5. What are the duties of the Minister of Justice and the Secretary of State?
6. Describe the work of the Department of Labour?
7. What is the "civil service"?
8. Commit to memory:

Should banded unions persecute
  Opinion and induce a time
  When single thought is civil crime,
And individual freedom mute;

Though Power should make from land to land
  The name of Britain trebly great—
  Tho' every channel of the state
Should fill and choke with golden sand—

Yet waft me from the harbour-mouth,
  Wild wind! I seek a warmer sky,
  And I will see before I die
The palms and temples of the South.

—*Tennyson.*

TOPIC IX.

Taxation.

1. The National Debt.

In order that government may go on, a great deal of money must, of course, be spent. Our nation, like nearly all others, is in debt to a large amount. Debt for a nation is not quite so troublesome a thing as debt for an ordinary person. Nations are expected to live forever or, at least, for a very long time. Consequently, when great public works are to be constructed,

it does not seem necessary or proper that, while these are to benefit future generations, the people of the present time should pay in full for them. Therefore, money is borrowed, and interest is paid on it. Moreover, the nation can borrow money at a low rate of interest, and thus the burden of the debt is, after all, not so great.

Still it is unwise even for a nation to assume a very heavy debt. For, in that case, those who lend money become afraid of not receiving the interest promptly or even of losing some of the principal, since a nation, like an individual, sometimes cannot or will not pay its debts. As a result, lenders may charge a high rate of interest or may not lend at all, even when the nation is in great need. Canada has never gone too deeply into debt, and so can borrow money at a low rate of interest, or, as people say, "the credit of the country is good." We have gone into debt chiefly to provide for the construction of public buildings, railways and canals, and to assume the indebtedness of the provinces at the time when they entered confederation.

2. Annual Expenditures.

Each year the interest on the public debt has to be paid. Next come the expenses of parliament and the salary of the governor-general. The Dominion must also pay the salaries of the lieutenant-governors of the provinces. All the expenses of the departments and the civil service have to be met. The salaries of the judges, the cost of building and managing public works of all kinds, of maintaining the mounted police in the Northwest Territories and of looking after the Indians, and countless other expenses, must all be paid.

3. Sources of Revenue.

Now, the question is how is all this money to be obtained? The answer is that it is paid in the form of taxes by the people. But the Dominion does not levy taxes on the people directly as a municipality does. It secures its revenue indirectly by means of customs and excise duties.

4. Customs Duties.

When anything is brought into the country, such as manufactured articles, like cotton or woollen goods, or natural products, like grain or

sugar, it may have a tax placed upon it of so much per cent. according to value, or so many cents per bushel or pound according to the quantity. Such taxes bear the name of customs duties. As goods usually are imported in large quantities by merchants, the duties are paid by them in the first place. But when they are bought by purchasers in the shops and elsewhere, they must be sold at a higher price in order to make up the amount of the duties that have been charged. Consequently, every person in the country pays more or less taxes to the Dominion government, although he may never realize that he is doing so.

Herein lies the objection to such a method of taxation, since one cannot readily discover how much he is actually paying. In fact, it would often seem as if a large part of the nation does not really know that government costs anything, or imagines that the money comes in some miraculous way and not out of the people's own pockets. As a result, public expenditures are not closely enough watched, and administrations are, in consequence, tempted to be wasteful. The nation also falls into the habit of expecting

parliament to authorize unprofitable undertakings, such, for example, as the construction of public works in places where they are not needed.

5. Protective Tariff.

The rate of duties placed upon imported goods, or the "tariff," as it is commonly called, may lend itself to another purpose besides the raising of revenue for the expenses of government. This we shall now explain. If a country has few manufactures, it must ordinarily have few people living in the cities, because there will be little work for them to do. Therefore, the farmers will find only a small population to buy their grain and other products, or, as it is said, the "home market" will be small. Hence it will be necessary to send a large amount of produce abroad to other countries in order to be able to dispose of it.

Now it is always felt that it would be well to have a large market at home. For, in that case, the manufacturer could sell his goods to the farmer, and the farmer sell his produce to the manufacturer and his workmen, and everybody find it a profitable arrangement.

But how can manufactures be built up, when costly buildings must first be erected and workmen trained, while foreign manufacturers who have been years in business are prepared to sell their goods at such low prices as to defy competition?

The easiest way out of the difficulty seems to be to levy high customs duties on foreign goods. As a result, these cannot any longer be sold cheaply in the country. Hence the home manufacturers will be able to sell their product at a remunerative price, and thus find themselves in a position to build and equip suitable factories and procure skilled workmen. Afterwards when they have had such "protection" against foreign goods, until their business has become prosperous, they will be able to meet all competition and need not complain, if the high duties are removed. This would seem to be an excellent arrangement, for, although the farmers and other purchasers will for a time have to pay more for what they buy, they will be assisting in the creation of a large home market for themselves.

The main difficulty is, that it is not easy for any one to say just how long the high duties

should be maintained. The manufacturers will naturally desire "protection," as long as it can be given, for, if it is removed, they will be compelled to lower the price of their goods. Yet those opposed to protection, called "free traders," would soon persuade the people to abolish the high duties, if foreign nations did not also have their own protective tariffs against us in order to keep out our goods. Thus there exists what is really a sort of war between nations, in which each tries to get the better of the other.

As a consequence, Canada seems to be forced in self-defence to keep up a protective tariff. In fact, there is only one great "free trade" country in the world, namely, Great Britain. The United States has a very high tariff. On the other hand, the Canadian tariff is rather a moderate one. Moreover, we have adopted, in favour of Great Britain and a number of the colonies, what is known as the "British preferential tariff," which permits their manufactures to enter our country at a lower rate than we grant to those of outside nations.

6. Excise Duties.

Besides the customs duties levied on goods brought into the country, there are "excise duties," which are collected on liquors and tobacco manufactured in Canada. This tax is a heavy one and yields a large revenue to the government.

7. Consolidated Fund.

All sums of money that are contributed for the purposes of government, whether they come from taxes or from some other source, are placed together to form what is known as the "consolidated fund." Then again, all the expenses of government are paid out of the same general fund. In this way it is very easy to discover to what the revenue and the expenditure have amounted during each year. An official, called the "auditor general," has the duty of investigating all payments, so as to make sure that no money has been expended for any purpose beyond what was authorized by parliament.

8. The Budget.

One of the great events of the annual session of parliament is the speech of the Minister of Finance in which he presents the "budget."

This means the statement of the probable expenses of government for the following year and of the amount and kind of taxation that will be necessary to meet these expenses. Therefore, it is in this speech that is explained what will be the rate of duties on imports, and whether the tariff will be "protective" in the case of certain kinds of goods, or whether it will be one "for revenue only." The budget speech is, or should be, a matter of great interest to farmers, manufacturers, merchants, and, in fact, to all classes of people, because customs duties affect everybody in the country in some way or other.

Questions.

1. Why should a nation not go deeply into debt?
2. How does the Dominion obtain its revenue?
3. Mention some of the annual items of expenditure.
4. What are "customs duties"?
5. What is a "protective tariff"?
6. What is the "budget"?

TOPIC X.

Money and the Banks.

1. Money and Barter.

We all know something about "money." When we buy anything, we pay money. When we sell anything, we receive money. Things that are sold and work that is done, are said to cost a certain sum in money. If there were no such thing as money, we should be forced to use what is called "barter." For example, if we wanted to buy a pair of boots, we should have to work a certain number of days for the man who sold them, or give him something that we had, such as wheat, flour or meat. Long ago before there was money, this is what was actually done. But nowadays all kinds of work to be performed and all articles to be sold, are said to cost a certain amount in dollars and cents. One can easily see that this is a much more convenient way of doing business than if we had to employ barter.

2. Currency.

The form of our money (or our "currency") is very familiar to us. It consists of copper, silver, and paper. The copper coin is the one cent

piece. The silver coins are the pieces worth 5, 10, 25, and 50 cents. The paper money consists of "notes" (usually called "bills"), representing the value of $1, $2, $4, $50, $100, $500 and $1,000. These coins and notes are issued by the Dominion, and would be worth little or, in the case of the paper money, nothing at all, if the government were not always willing, when asked, to pay the given value in gold.

But just because it is well known that the government will pay in gold, there is considered to be little need of asking for payment. The promise to pay is regarded as of the same value as the gold itself. But, if at any time many persons should come to believe that the government either would not, or could not, pay in gold, our currency would at once lose much of its value. Therefore, the government takes care to issue currency only to such an amount that doubt can never arise as to its being able to "redeem" all in case of necessity. Canada has as yet no gold coinage. When gold is asked for, British or American gold coins are paid out.

3. Coinage.

An establishment where gold, silver and copper coins are made is called a "mint." Our

mint is situated in Ottawa. It is a branch of the royal mint in Great Britain.

The notes or bills are printed on specially prepared paper, and are signed by officers of the Dominion. Great care must be taken that no person shall be allowed to imitate, or "counterfeit," these notes, since, in that case, either the government or the persons who happened to accept the "counterfeits," would lose the amount of money supposed to be represented by them.

4. The Chartered Banks.

The regular banks of the country, called "chartered banks," perform many important services. Their business is carried on under the terms of a "banking act" which renders them, as far as can be done by legislation, a safe place in which to deposit money. Most of the provisions of the act are too difficult to explain here. But in a general way it may be said that the shareholders (that is, those who own and control the bank) are liable to lose, in case the bank becomes insolvent, not only the money that they have invested, but as much again, should it all be required to pay off the indebtedness. Thus the "double liability" of

the shareholders makes it almost impossible for the depositors to lose much in the event of the failure of a chartered bank.

5. Services Performed by the Banks.

The chief services performed by the banks may be described as follows:—

1. They issue currency called "banknotes" or "bankbills." None of these notes are below $5 in value. In most banks they are of such denominations as $5, $10, $20, $50, $100. If a bank fails, its notes do not lose value, for the banking act prescribes a way by which they are sure to be redeemed in full without the slightest loss or inconvenience to the public.

2. They form a safe place for the deposit of money. The double liability of the shareholders makes it possible to secure funds enough in even the most disastrous failures to pay back nearly in full the amount of the money deposited.

3. They furnish money at a reasonable rate of interest to merchants and others for the carrying on of those kinds of business in which large amounts must be paid out for purchases,

before much can be returned through the sale of the goods. An important example is to be found in the case of the money required to pay farmers for their wheat. Most of the wheat must be shipped to Great Britain; hence there must elapse considerable time before it is actually paid for by the purchasers across the ocean. With the aid of the banks, it becomes possible to make cash payments to the farmers from whom the grain is bought, and to the railway companies by whom it is transported.

4. All the large banks have many branches throughout the country. Thus there is in nearly every town and village an office of a strong and trustworthy institution, where money may be deposited or borrowed according to the needs of local business.

QUESTIONS.

1. Examine a one-dollar bill, noting the place, the date, the number, the "promise to pay," and the signatures. What scenes and persons are represented on the front and back of the bill?

2. Examine a copper or silver coin, noting the design on its two sides. Find what the Latin inscription means.

3. What is the name of the nearest branch of a chartered bank? Who are the chief officials? What is the rate of interest paid on deposits?

NOVA SCOTIA EDITION.

PART II.—PROVINCIAL AFFAIRS.

TOPIC XI.

The Provincial Government.

1. Introduction.

There are nine provinces in the Dominion of Canada, and, although there is much similarity in their forms of government, there are likewise important differences. We shall find it well to study particularly the government of the province of Nova Scotia, and refer to that of others only when some interesting point is to be observed.

Nova Scotia is one of the eastern or maritime provinces of Canada. It has important agricultural, lumbering and mining industries, and is well adapted for manufacturing. It is composed of the peninsula proper and the adjoining island of Cape Breton, which is separated from the mainland by the Strait of Canso. Nova Scotia entered the confederation in 1867 as one of the original provinces.

2. The Lieutenant-Governor and the Premier.

The provincial government is conducted according to the same general principles that we have already studied in the case of the Dominion. The Lieutenant-Governor, who is appointed by the Dominion Government, holds in the province a position similar to that which the Governor-General holds in the Dominion. The leader of the government is called the "premier," and is the head of the provincial cabinet, which is known as the "executive council."

3. The Executive Council.

The members of the executive council of the province are as follows:

(*a*) The Premier, who is the head of the Department of Education, and may also have charge of one of the other government departments.

(*b*) The Attorney-General, whose duty it is to advise the Lieutenant-Governor and the heads of the several departments upon matters of law and to superintend matters connected with the administration of justice in the province. The Attorney-General is also the head of the department of crown lands, his title as head of this

department being "Commissioner of Crown Lands."

(*c*) The Provincial Secretary, who, in addition to his duties as the official secretary of the government and keeper of the Great Seal, has control as Provincial Treasurer of the financial affairs and public accounts of the province; and as head of the department of agriculture, of agricultural matters. He performs as well a number of other important duties of administration.

(*d*) The Commissioner of Public Works and Mines, who has the superintendence and management of public property under the control of the government, and also of all public works, roads, railways and mines, so far as administration of such matters is vested in the government. This department also has charge of the public printing and the Royal Gazette, an official weekly publication in which government and official notices are published.

(*e*) There are also a number of members of the the executive council who have charge of no department, but have a voice in the general policy of the government. These are called members without portfolio.

The total number of members of the executive council is limited to nine.

The official Secretary of the Executive Council is called the Clerk of the Executive Council. He is not, however, a member of the Council. The deputy ministers and secretaries and superintendents with the clerks and employees under them compose the "civil service" of the province.

4. The Legislature.

The law-making body of the province is called the legislature. It consists of the Lieutenant-Governor and two chambers, the Legislative Council and the House of Assembly. The Legislative Council consists of twenty-one members appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council.

The House of Assembly consists of thirty-eight members, of whom three are elected by the county of Halifax and three by the county of Pictou, and two by each of the other counties of the province. Business is conducted in the legislature in much the same way as in the Dominion parliament. There is a speaker of the House of Assembly, a clerk and a sergeant-at-

arms. At the opening of the session a "speech from the throne" is read by the Lieutenant-Governor. Debate is conducted under rules similar to those of the Dominion Houses. The full term of the legislature is five years, but dissolution may come about sooner and the elections be held, as in the case of the House of Commons at Ottawa.

Members of the House of Assembly, like those of the House of Commons, do not need to own property, but they must be British subjects of the full age of twenty-one years. The sessional indemnity is seven hundred dollars.

5. The Provincial Voters' List.

In order that a person may have the right to vote at a provincial election, his name must be registered on the latest revised list of voters of the constituency. To entitle him to registration he must be a British subject of the age of twenty-one years, and either

(*a*) Assessed for real property to the value of one hundred and fifty dollars, or

(*b*) Assessed for personalty (or personal and real property together) to the value of three

hundred dollars, or on income to the amount of $250 or

(*c*) In possession of property exempt from taxation of the value above mentioned, or

(*d*) A yearly tenant of property of above values (though the property is assessed to the owner).

Persons deriving an income of $250 from any profession, trade or calling (though not assessed therefor) and the sons of qualified persons are also entitled to registration if they have fulfilled certain conditions as to residence.

The voters' list is revised each year by officers called revisers, to whom the assessors are required to deliver each year before the twentieth day of January a copy of the assessment rolls. Anyone desiring to be registered whose name is not on the assessment roll is required to make application to a reviser on or before the 20th of January. The revisers then prepare from the assessment roll, the list of voters then in force, and the applications, what is called a preliminary list of voters. Copies of this list are posted up in three public places in the district to which

the list relates, and any person who claims that the name of any person is wrongly on the list may give notice in writing that he will apply to strike his name off. The revisers are required also to post up the names of persons proposed to be added or struck off. On the fifth day of March in each year the revisers of each revisal section meet and after hearing witnesses and other evidence, prepare from the information which they have obtained a list of voters in alphabetical order for each polling district by adding to the preliminary list the names of persons shown to be entitled to be registered, and by striking off such list the names of persons not entitled to registration. The revisers in each section then send the lists so revised and completed to the clerk of the municipality of which the revisal section forms a part. Any person dissatisfied with the lists has a right to appeal to the sheriff of the county. It is the duty of every sheriff to attend at his office on the twenty-first of March in each year for the purpose of hearing any such appeals, and the municipal clerks are required on or before that date to deliver the lists of voters to the sheriff.

The sheriff, after hearing appeals, signs the final lists and returns them to the municipal clerk. These then constitute the new voters' lists. Copies are prepared and certified by the sheriff, and when an election takes place in the county the copies are delivered to the returning officer. Not every one who is registered on the voters' list is entitled to vote. A judge of the Supreme Court may not vote. Returning officers (usually the sheriffs) are not allowed to vote, except in case of a tie. Women are not permitted to vote in provincial elections.

6. Elections.

The elections for the House of Assembly are conducted in the same way as those for the Dominion House of Commons. The voting is by a secret ballot, and there are similar rules in force as to the marking of the ballots.

Any two electors may nominate a candidate by signing a nomination paper in proper form, and having it filed with the returning officer on the date fixed for receiving nominations. The nomination to be valid must be accompanied by a deposit of $100 to be placed in the hands of

the returning officer. This deposit is returned to the candidate if he is elected, or if he receives at least half as many votes as any successful candidate. Otherwise the deposit is placed in the Provincial treasury for the uses of the province.

7. Provincial Revenues.

The revenues of the province of Nova Scotia are derived from various sources. The chief sources are, the Royalty from Mines, Succession duties and fees from Companies, etc., and the subsidies received from the Dominion.

To give the pupil an idea of the sources and amount of revenue of the Province exclusive of the Dominion subsidies, it may be stated that during the financial year ending September 30th, 1911, the following amounts were received:

From Mines	$648,000
" Fees from Companies, marriage licenses, etc	33,000
" Succession Duties	42,000

The Subsidies.—In addition to the revenues just referred to, there are the subsidies received by the province from the Dominion. According

to the terms of the British North America Act, the Dominion must pay to each province annually certain sums known as "provincial subsidies." The original subsidies have been increased more than once since confederation. When the provinces became part of the federation they gave up the right of collecting customs and excise duties, and by way of compensation the Dominion agreed to pay certain subsidies to the provinces. These provinces had public debts which they had incurred in the construction of public works of various kinds. As we have already learned, the Dominion assumed this indebtedness. Provision, however, was made in the case of some of the provinces that if their debts were less than certain specified sums, they should receive from the Dominion five per cent. per year on whatever the difference might be. This agreement did not prove satisfactory and a demand for better terms was made. As a result, it was finally decided to allow each province as additional compensation five per cent. on a certain sum. This forms one item of the subsidies. The other items consist of an allowance

of eighty cents per head for each resident of the province according to the last Dominion census, and a grant to meet the general expenses of government. The total subsidy for the year 1911 was $610,460.48.

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TOPIC XII.

Municipal Government.

1. Introduction.

We have, up to the present time, been learning about the government of the Dominion, and of its larger subdivisions, the provinces. We shall now study the government of the smaller divisions as city, town and municipality. We have thus far been trying to understand our systems of federal and provincial administration. We shall now take up the subject of "Municipal Government." The word "municipal" is derived from a Latin word which means a city or town having special rights of self government.

2. Kinds of Municipalities.

Municipalities are formed in accordance with laws passed by the Provincial legislature. The cities are incorporated under special Acts of the legislature, usually called charters. There are at present only two cities in the province, Halifax and Sydney.

The towns, of which there are in all thirty-seven, are incorporated under the authority of a general Act called the Towns Incorporation Act. The portions of the province not included in any city or town compose the municipal districts or municipalities proper. Their municipal government is carried on under the provisions of a general Act called the Municipal Act, which makes the inhabitants thereof a corporation. These municipal districts correspond for the most part with the counties of the province (exclusive of the cities and towns). The exceptions are the counties of Yarmouth, Digby, Hants, Lunenburg, Guysboro' and Shelburne, which each contain two municipal districts.

Whether, therefore, you live in a city, town or in the country, there is a municipal corporation in which you should be especially interested since it deals with matters that intimately concern every inhabitant. For instance, its duty is to see that roads and streets are made, that sidewalks are laid, that drains and sewers are constructed, that articles of food sold are of proper quality, and that police protection is provided for the people.

3. The Councils.

CITIES.—(1) In the cities the governing body consists of a mayor and members of the city council called aldermen. The number of aldermen and the qualifications of the mayor and aldermen vary in the different cities. They must, however, in all cases be British subjects, twenty-one years of age, and ratepayers in the city for which they are elected. The whole particulars as to city administration are set forth in the special Acts or Charters of each city.

TOWNS.—(2) In towns the governing body consists of a mayor and not less than six councillors. In the case of a town divided into wards the number of councillors to be elected for each ward is fixed by by-law of the council. The mayor holds office for one year, and a councillor for two years. The mayor is the chief executive officer of the town, and it is his duty to inspect the conduct of all subordinate officers in the town government and to recommend to the council such measures as tend to the improvement of the finances, police, health, comfort and appearance of the town. The council exercises within the town all the powers

which in municipal districts are exercised by overseers of the poor and supervisors of highways, and have the management and control of all the property belonging to or held by the town for public use. It is the duty of the council to assist the mayor in the discharge of his duties, and to appoint standing committees from among its members for such purposes as are provided by the town by-laws.

The election for mayor and councillors is held on the first Tuesday of February in each year. No person is qualified to be mayor or councillor of a town unless he is a British subject of over 21 years of age, and is a resident and ratepayer of the town. To be qualified for mayor, he must be assessed upon real property at not less than $500.00 or upon personal property at not less than $1,000.00, and must have been a resident ratepayer for the three years next preceding his nomination. To be qualified for a councillor he must have resided (or had his principal place of business) in the town and been a ratepayer thereof for one year next previous to his nomination. Ministers of religion, sheriffs, and persons engaged in buying or selling intoxicating liquors

are not eligible for the office of mayor or councillor, and judges, senators, teachers and persons over 60 years of age are exempt from serving unless with their own consent.

Neither mayors nor councillors of a town are allowed to enter into or be interested in any contract with the town.

Town Elections.—Every person is qualified to vote at an election of mayor or councillor who is a British subject, 21 years old, and is registered on the list of voters used at provincial elections, including the women on such list, provided that all taxes due the town have been paid ten days before nomination day.

Nominations for the office of mayor or councillor are made in writing by at least two voters, and the nomination paper must be delivered to the town clerk on Tuesday before the election.

The voting is conducted by secret ballot much the same as in the case of Dominion and Provincial elections. If only the required number of candidates is nominated, no poll is held, and the candidates nominated are declared duly elected.

Town Officers.—Every Town Council is required to appoint an officer called the Town Clerk who holds office during good behavior. It is the duty of the Town Clerk to keep a true record of all proceedings of the Council, and to keep the books and accounts of the town and preserve on file all by-laws and minutes, and, if required by the Council, to act as treasurer and collector of rates and taxes.

The Council may also appoint a Town Solicitor, and a Deputy Town Solicitor. These hold office during good behavior.

The Council is also required annually to appoint sanitary inspectors, superintendents of streets, fire-wards, constables, firemen, assessors and other necessary officers. These hold office during the pleasure of the Council and may be dismissed at any time.

By-Laws and Ordinances.—The Town Council is authorized to make by-laws and ordinances necessary for the local government of the town, the management of the town property, and for regulating its own proceedings and the procedure at meetings of ratepayers and such other matters

as are within its control. All such by-laws before being effective are required to be approved by the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council. The subjects respecting which the town council may legislate by by-laws are found in the Towns Incorporation Act. The list is a long one, and it is not necessary to give it here. In general, everything that concerns the local government of the town which is not otherwise provided for by the statutes of the province, is under the control of the town council.

FINANCE.—The Council has power to collect from the ratepayers and appropriate money required by the town for the support of its various services, as for schools, the maintenance of the poor, the payment of the salaries of its officers, maintaining its fire department, police, streets, waterworks, sewers, as well as to pay the interest on money borrowed.

If a town desires to make any expenditure not in the ordinary course of carrying on the town business, where it is necessary to borrow money, a public meeting of the ratepayers must be held, and such meeting must approve of the expenditure. Only ratepayers are entitled to vote

at such meeting. There must, in addition to the approval of the ratepayers, be legislative authority for such expenditure. This authority is usually given by a special Act.

(3) MUNICIPAL DISTRICTS.—Municipal districts, commonly called municipalities, are governed by the provisions of the "Municipal Act," much in the same way as the Towns Incorporation Act provides for town government. Each polling district of the municipality elects at least one councillor, the procedure being similar to the election of a councillor for a town.

The chief executive officer is called the warden. He is elected by the councillors from among themselves at the first meeting of the council. In case a majority of the councillors cannot agree upon the choice of a warden the appointment is made by the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council.

The Council regularly holds annual or semi-annual meetings, and if necessary special meetings may be called.

A Municipal Clerk and a Municipal Treasurer are chosen by the Council by ballot and hold office during good behavior. The council at its

annual meeting in January, appoints assessors, overseers of the poor, constables, pound-keepers and other officers required to carry into effect the provisions of the Municipal Act.

The Council makes by-laws in respect to matters over which it has control. These by-laws, as in the case of town by-laws, are subject to the approval of the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council.

4. Municipal Taxation.

In order to meet the expenses of civil government there is imposed in cities, towns and municipalities a direct tax on property, and (except in the city of Halifax) on income. As a first step it is necessary to determine the value of every person's property and the amount of all incomes that are taxable. For this purpose there are appointed by the councils, officers called "assessors," who make an estimate in every case and record it in a document called the "assessment roll." All property is supposed to be assessed at its actual value, and incomes at their actual amount above the exemption.

In addition to taxes on property, poll taxes are also levied for municipal purposes.

Since the amount of taxes which a person will have to pay depends upon the assessed value of his property, or the assessed amount of his income, or both, it is important that the work of assessment shall be fairly and accurately done. Each person liable to be assessed is required to furnish the assessors with a statement of the value of his property. The assessors, however, are not bound to be guided by such statements.

After the assessors have completed the assessment roll, notice is given to each person of the amount for which he has been assessed. Any person resident in a town or municipality who complains of the amount of his assessment has the right to appeal to the assessment appeal board, which is established by the Assessment Act. There is also a further appeal in such cases to the County Court. Appeals from assessment in a city are governed by the provisions of the city charter.

5. Exemption from Taxation.

By the general law of taxation, except in cities, which are governed by special acts, there are certain kinds of property and income exempt from taxation. The list is briefly as follows:—

(1) Property owned by the Crown.

(2) Property belonging to the town or municipality in which the assessment is made.

(3) Churches and places of worship.

(4) The real estate of institutions of learning and all school lands.

(5) Public landings, wharves, etc.

(6) Property to the value of $400 belonging to a widow, unmarried woman or wife deserted by her husband.

(7) Funds invested in provincial debentures.

(8) The property of agricultural societies. Farming implements to the value of $200 belonging to a farmer and in working his farm. Tools to the value of $200 belonging to a mechanic and necessary for carrying on his business. Boats and nets of fishermen to the value of $200.

(9) Income to the extent of $400 in municipalities and $600 in towns.

(10) Half the value of ships in course of construction.

(11) Property specially exempted by Act of the Legislature.

6. Borrowing.

Sometimes in order to carry out some expensive undertaking, such as paving streets, the construction of a system of waterworks, the installation of a sewerage system or the erection of public buildings, a municipal, city or town council may think it advisable to borrow money instead of defraying the total expense from the year's taxes. In such cases authority must be obtained from the legislature. If any person thinks the authority should not be given he may appear before the committee of the legislature when the House is in session and oppose the passage of the bill.

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TOPIC XIII.

The Courts of Law.

1. Introduction.

We have been studying thus far how the laws are made. We wish now to learn how they are enforced. The enforcement of the laws is the duty of the "judicial" power. We have already found what the executive and the legislative powers are, and how they belong to parliament and the legislature. On the other hand, the judicial power belongs not to parliament but to certain special bodies called "courts of law." A court consists of a judge with or without the aid of a "jury." A jury is a group of men, usually twelve in number, chosen for the occasion from the district where the sittings of the court are held. The highest courts generally have more than one judge and no jury.

2. The English Common Law and the Statute Law.

It is necessary to have laws for the many and complex relations that unite men in our modern civilization, such as their business relations and their family and social relations. If a

man lends money, the law has to state how he shall set about collecting it should the debtor not be willing to pay promptly; if he desires to make a will the law must tell in what manner such an act can properly be performed; and if one man speaks ill of another the law has to declare in how far the latter may be able to find a remedy.

Our system of law has not been made in a day, but has grown up gradually through the long course of centuries, according as various customs and precedents became accepted as fair and just. For judges, in dealing with particular cases that came before them, followed certain general principles of justice, and as a result of their decisions there has arisen a great body of law which applies to innumerable matters. This law, which we have inherited from England, we call the "English common law." The common law is at the foundation of our legal system throughout the Dominion (except in the province of Quebec). In order to change the common law or make other laws to suit our own time and country, parliament and the legislature are, as we have seen, constantly passing new acts or

statutes, and these form what is known as the "statute law."

3. Criminal and Civil Law.

There is an important distinction between the laws which the Dominion parliament may make and those which the provincial legislature has power to enact. Parliament alone can make laws that relate to crime and criminals. These are included under the term "criminal law," which has to do with such offences as murder, forgery, theft, etc. The legislature, on the other hand, enacts laws that affect property and civil rights (Topic II). These come under the head of "civil law."

4. A Civil Suit.

Now, the constitution of the various courts of law, and the powers that belong to them, form a somewhat difficult subject. Therefore it will be better at first to follow the proceedings in two supposed cases, and learn in this incidental way what we can about the courts.

Let us take first a civil suit. We shall suppose that we wish to recover a certain amount of money that Mr. B. owes us. We are "plaintiffs,"

because we enter the suit (make the plaint). Mr. B. is the "defendant," because he is defending his case. We make a brief statement of our claim in a writ of summons which we secure from the proper court, and this is "served on" the defendant, who has to put in a "defence," that is, give a reason why he ought not to pay. If the defendant were not to put in any defence, judgment would go "by default," and we could then proceed to collect our account by having the goods of the defendant seized and sold.

If the "defence" has been properly entered, the suit will come up for trial at the next sitting of the court. Although a person may present his own case in court, it is nearly always better to engage a lawyer for the purpose. It is a lawyer's business to know the law; and no one not trained as he, can possibly bring out so well the important points and avoid making disastrous mistakes. A lawyer is usually consulted before any suit is brought at all, and allowed time to study the case fully. Therefore, we shall suppose that we have engaged the lawyer, Mr. X. The defendant has engaged Mr. Y.

When the day of the trial comes, our case may not be the first one called. Perhaps the judge may not reach it till the next day. But at last it is opened. Our lawyer, or "counsel," opens the case by stating what our claim is. We are asked to take our places as witnesses and give evidence. We are sworn "to tell the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth." Then by questions our counsel leads us to tell all we know about the circumstances and the nature of the claim. After he is done, the defendant's counsel "cross-questions" us, that is, asks us further questions, intending to bring out any point that is favourable to the defendant's side.

If there are other persons besides ourselves who know anything about the matter, they have been ordered to attend the court, and are now sworn, questioned and cross-questioned. When our witnesses have all been heard, the defendant and his witnesses are sworn and give their evidence in the same way. Then the lawyers sum up the evidence as a whole, each emphasizing the points that in his opinion favour his side.

With this the case is concluded, and the judge either gives his decision at once, or "reserves" the matter for further study, and the decision is given later. The side that loses usually pays the costs of the trial, although this is not so invariably. If the loser is not satisfied he may "appeal" to a higher court. But appeals are expensive, and are not usually taken unless there is good reason to hope that the decision of the higher court will be favourable.

5. A Criminal Case.

Let us now follow the course of a criminal case in the courts. We shall suppose that a murder has been committed. An officer, called the "coroner," looks into the matter and decides that it is necessary to hold an "inquest," or inquiry. He then summons a jury and has witnesses called, sworn, and questioned. After this the jury gives its "verdict," or opinion, as to how the murdered man met his death. If the jury is reasonably certain as to who the guilty person is, it charges him with the crime.

This person is then arrested and brought before a local magistrate. The magistrate may

be a "justice of the peace," who is a sort of inferior judge appointed by the provincial government; or, if the crime has occurred in a city or town, he may be a regular officer with the name of "police" or "stipendiary magistrate." He goes only so far in his trial of the prisoner as to satisfy himself that a sufficient case has been "made out to put the prisoner on his defence." He then commits the prisoner to jail to stand his trial at the next session of the criminal court in that county or judicial district.

If it were not a case of murder the accused man might be allowed out on "bail" during this time. A prisoner is said to be out "on bail," when some persons have promised to see that he is present in court at the proper time or to pay a certain sum of money as a fine. But a man accused of so serious a crime as murder must stay in jail till the court takes up his case.

There is a lawyer appointed by the province to arrange for the proper trial of persons accused of crime. He is called the "prosecuting officer," and he prepares the charge against the prisoner, which is laid before the "grand jury" at the session of the criminal court. This jury does

not try the prisoner. It merely examines the evidence against him and decides whether this evidence is sufficient for sending him up for trial. If it decides that the evidence is not sufficient, the accused is set at liberty.

But if it concludes that the evidence is sufficient, it is said to bring in a "true bill," and the accused may go for trial before a "petit jury" (that is, little jury). This jury is one specially chosen for his case and consists of twelve men. Before he can be declared guilty or innocent all the twelve men have to agree. If the jury cannot agree on a verdict it is dismissed, and the trial has to begin again before a new jury.

When the prisoner is brought into the court the charge against him is read to him, and he is asked to say whether he is guilty or not guilty of the crime. Usually he will say that he is "not guilty." Then the members of the petit jury (which has been already referred to), are chosen from lists of jurors provided. Both the prosecuting counsel and the prisoner's counsel have the right to object to any juror if it is thought that he may not act fairly, either from

supposed friendship or supposed enmity towards the prisoner, or from some other cause.

After the jury has been chosen the trial begins. Proceedings resemble in a general way those already described in the civil suits. At the close of the address of counsel for each side the judge sums up the case for the jury, carefully stating what questions they have to decide. In a case of murder it may be that the jury will have to decide whether the accused person is actually the guilty one, and if he is, whether he committed the murder wilfully or did it while trying to defend himself against attack from the murdered man.

The jury then retire and discuss the case among themselves, until they come to a decision. Then they all return to the court-room and their leader, called a "foreman," announces whether they have found the prisoner "guilty." or "not guilty." The judge, in accordance with the verdict, either sentences the prisoner or allows him to go.

In case there is any important point of law involved, an appeal may be taken to a higher

court Until this appeal is decided the sentence is not carried out. Sometimes, when some serious mistake has been made, a new trial may be ordered.

6. Pardons.

The power to pardon a person convicted of a crime rests with the Minister of Justice of the Dominion. If there is good reason for showing mercy in a special case, the minister recommends to the Governor-General that the prisoner receive a full pardon, or that he be pardoned after a certain time.

7. Summary Trial.

Instead of waiting for the regular sitting of a court, an accused person may, in the case of lesser crimes, "elect" (that is, choose) to be tried at once before a judge of the county court without a jury. In this event the matter can be very speedily dealt with.

8. The Nova Scotia Courts.

The Courts of law in Nova Scotia may be briefly described as follows, beginning with the lowest or inferior courts :

MAGISTRATES' COURTS.—Justices of the Peace and Stipendiary Magistrates are appointed by

the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council, primarily, for dealing with criminal and *quasi* criminal matters and for the keeping of peace and order. The special jurisdiction of each is laid down by acts of the provincial legislature and in the criminal code of Canada. Generally, their duty is to deal with matters of lesser importance and to hold preliminary examinations in connection with more serious offences. Their criminal jurisdiction is given them by federal statutes, particularly by the criminal code. Their civil jurisdiction is conferred by statutes of the province.

Probate Court.—This court deals with the administration of the estates of deceased persons and matters incidental thereto. There is a probate court for each probate district in the province. The probate districts (except in Guysboro' and Shelburne) correspond with the counties.

County Court.—There are in the province seven county court districts and a judge for each district. The districts are composed of one or more counties, and the County Court Judge holds sittings of the court in each county town

and in such other places in the district as are fixed by "The County Court Act."

This Court has jurisdiction in actions on contract where the amount claimed does not exceed $800, and in actions for tort (damages for wrongful acts) where the amount claimed does not exceed $400. The court has also jurisdiction in all cases under The Employers' Liability Act whatever the amount involved.

Supreme Court.—The Supreme Court is the highest court in the province, and is composed of a chief justice and six other judges.

Supreme Court cases are tried by one judge either with or without a jury. The sittings of the court for the trial of actions are held in each county twice a year on dates fixed by law. No court except the Supreme Court has power to decide civil cases in which the title to land is in question, and no other court has jurisdiction to try crimes punishable by death. The officer of the court whose duty it is to keep the records is called the Prothonotary.

The Supreme Court *in banco* (as it is called when the judges sit in a body) holds its sittings

only in the City of Halifax. The court sitting *in banco* acts as a court of appeal from the decisions of a Supreme Court judge on circuit as well as from the decisions of county and inferior courts. It also has jurisdiction over other matters.

COURT FOR DIVORCE AND MATRIMONIAL CAUSES.—This court has jurisdiction over matters relating to prohibited marriages and applications for divorces.

One of the judges of the Supreme Court is usually appointed judge of this Court.

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TOPIC XIV.

Education.

1. Introduction.

All pupils who read this book will no doubt like to know something about the public schools and colleges of the Province. In cities and towns the schools are under the control of a Board of School Commissioners. In the incorporated towns of the Province the board is composed of five members, three of whom are appointed by the town council, and two by the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council. In the City of Halifax the board consists of twelve members, six appointed by the city council, and six by the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council. In the country sections the schools are managed by a board of three trustees, chosen at the annual school meeting of the section.

2. Council of Public Instruction.

The Council of public instruction, presided over by the Premier, is in supreme control of the public schools of the Province. This board is

composed of the members of the Executive Council.

The Council of public instruction directs, in cases not specifically provided for by Statute, the expenditure of the money paid out of the provincial treasury for educational purposes, and prepares the regulations under which such moneys are expended. It makes regulations for the conducting of the Normal College, and appoints the teachers thereof. It provides for inspection of the schools, grants the teachers licenses, prescribes the text books to be used in the schools, and generally provides for an efficient system of education.

3. Superintendent of Education.

The Superintendent of Education is the Secretary of the Council of Public Instruction and subject to the council has general supervision over all the educational institutions which receive aid from the provincial treasury. It is his duty to inspect the county academies, and make any inquiries and reports respecting the management of the schools that may be required by the council, and generally to act as the expert

adviser of the council in all educational matters. The superintendent makes a full report to the legislature, giving the details of the administration of the educational affairs of the province.

4. Advisory Board of Education.

There is also a Board called the "Advisory Board" of Education. This Board consists of seven persons, five of whom are appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council, and two elected by the licensed teachers in attendance at the Provincial Educational Association. The duties of this Board are to advise the council and superintendent as to text books and apparatus for use in the schools, qualification and examination of teachers, courses of study, organization of the schools, and any other matters that may be referred to them. As the name of the Board implies, the members only act in an advisory capacity.

5. District Boards.

The Province is divided into districts, each of which for certain purposes is under the supervision of a board of not less than seven members called the District Board of School Commissioners. There are in all thirty-three such

districts. The Inspector is a member of every board within his inspectorial division. Every district board meets annually, and three members constitute a quorum. The district board has power to make alterations in the boundaries of school sections, and to create new sections. It has power to condemn a schoolhouse or grounds as unfit for school purposes, and determines what school sections under its supervision are entitled to special aid, as poor sections. It should make any special arrangements necessary to establish schools in sparsely settled places, or on islands too distant to permit children to attend school on the mainland.

6. The Inspector.

For the purpose of inspection, the Province is divided into twelve inspectorial divisions, and an inspector is appointed in charge of each. It is the duty of every inspector to visit and inspect at least annually, every school within his division, and report its condition to the Superintendent. The Inspector is required to keep a general oversight over the administration of the school law, and to see that proper facilities are being

provided, and that the regulations of the council are enforced.

7. School Sections.

Every district is divided into a number of sections, and in every section is held an annual school meeting which all persons residing in the section liable for school taxes have a right to attend. At this meeting (usually held on the last Monday in June) as many trustees are elected as is necessary to fill vacancies, the amount which shall be raised by the section for the support of its schools for the ensuing year is determined, and other subjects of importance to the educational interests of the section are considered.

8. School Trustees.

The Board of Trustees is composed of three members, each of whom holds office for three years, one trustee retiring annually. It is the duty of the trustees to hold as a corporation all the school property of the section, to employ the teachers, and see that the schools are open and properly conducted during the school year. They are required to make a written report at the annual meeting of their doings, and to give

a detailed account of all school moneys received and expended during the year.

In the cities and towns, the duties imposed on trustees are performed (as before stated) by a Board of School Commissioners.

9. Support of Schools.

The public schools are supported from three sources :—(1) provincial grants, (2) The municipal school funds, (3) Sectional rates.

Provincial Grants.—Teachers receive annual grants from the Provincial Treasury, according to their class of license, grants varying from $60 to $210. There is provision for special aid to isolated sections, to schools for manual training, to night schools, and to consolidated schools, established under the regulations of the Council.

Municipal School Fund.—This is a direct tax included in the municipal assessment, and provides a sum equal to thirty-five cents a head on every inhabitant of the municipality and of the towns which before incorporation territorially formed part of the municipal district or county. These towns pay to the treasurer of the municipality their proportionate part of this sum. The

municipal council may, with the consent of the towns, increase this municipal school fund to any amount not exceeding sixty cents for every inhabitant. The municipal school fund is at the close of each year apportioned to the trustees for the payment of the salaries of teachers, in accordance with rules laid down by the Education Act.

Sectional School Rates.—Any amount required by the section over and above the sums provided out of the provincial treasury and the municipal school fund is met by a poll and property tax on the residents of the section.

In cities and towns the money required for schools, over and above the grants, is voted by the city or town council and collected with the other taxes.

10. County Academies.

The Board of Commissioners in each shire or county town of the province is entitled to maintain a high school or academy, which is open free of charge to students from all parts of the county. These high schools participate in a special grant from the province called the

Academic grant. The council of public instruction prescribes the qualifications of high school teachers, fixes standards of admission for students, arranges the courses of study and frames the general regulations under which academies are conducted.

If a county town does not maintain an Academy, the Council of Public Instruction may authorize any other section to establish such school.

11. The Normal College.

Persons who intend to become teachers in the public schools of the Province, after qualifying themselves in the common and high schools, enter the Provincial Normal College, and there secure the professional training necessary for a teacher. The Normal course begins in September and closes in June. Five Diplomas are issued by the Normal College.

Diploma of Academic Rank,
" " Superior First Rank,
" " First Rank,
" " Second Rank,
" " Third Rank,

and pupils of the college are classified according to the diploma sought into five divisions:— University Graduate, A, B, C, and D.

There are also courses for teachers' diplomas in Mechanics and in Domestic Science.

12. Technical Education.

The Province, in addition to the provision made for the common and high school courses, and for the training of teachers, provides for training in Agriculture by the College of Agriculture at Truro, and for other technical training (in mining and engineering and the like) by the Nova Scotia Technical College at Halifax. There have also been established in the cities and in a number of the towns in the Province, local technical schools, supported in part by the cities or towns in which they are situated.

13. Colleges and Universities.

Other than as above stated, there is no college or university having the status of a provincial university.

Dalhousie University, situate at Halifax, is the largest of the universities in the Province, and besides the usual academic courses has a law school, a medical and a dental college.

The other universities in the province having degree conferring powers are denominational institutions. These are in some of their courses affiliated with the Nova Scotia Technical College and with Dalhousie University. These denominational colleges are as follows: Acadia, situated at Wolfville, belonging to the Baptists; Kings, situated at Windsor, an Anglican institution. St. Francis Xavier, at Antigonish; College Ste. Anne, at Church Point; Seminary Holy Heart and St. Mary's College at Halifax are Roman Catholic colleges.

Efforts have been made at various times to effect some consolidation of the colleges in Nova Scotia granting academic degrees, but hitherto nothing material has been accomplished.

Duties of the Citizen.

You have in this book been studying chiefly the powers and duties of those who govern. But it must always be remembered that the ordinary citizen has powers and duties as well. He must not sit down quietly, and allow the affairs of state to go on, without feeling that he has some responsibility. Therefore, though you may be only one person in the vast total of the population, yet you have your duties to perform.

The first one is to try to understand as well as you can our system of government, and to keep yourself informed as to all the important acts of those who are in authority. In your study of public affairs you will be led beyond the bounds of the Canadian Dominion, for we have the advantage of living in a country which is part of a great empire. As you come to know better the outside world of nations, the more confident you will be of the value of our position.

Though Canada has not as yet assumed in any definite way the duties of empire, yet there is a certain imperial feeling that we should strive to develop. The British Empire is so vast that it

contains within itself nations of all languages and all religions. As a citizen of the Empire you should, therefore, have respect and toleration for the opinions of others. Our Empire cannot long continue to exist, unless it is something for which our brother nations may all have an ardent loyalty, whatever may be their creed, race or tongue. This imperial feeling will also help us in our national affairs, for it will enable us to be sympathetic with our fellow citizens throughout the Dominion.

In Canada we have what has been said by enthusiastic observers to be the most perfect constitution yet devised by man. It seems to possess all the advantages of the noble constitution of the American Republic, yet with few of the latter's defects. But constitutions are not worth the paper they are written on, and precedents not worth the time spent in remembering and recording them, if the citizens do not take an interest in the affairs of the state. And the same is true all the way down from national government to the management of the public business of the municipality and of the school division. Therefore, your second duty as a

citizen is to put your knowledge of the nation and its government to practical use by taking an active part in politics.

The most effective way to make your influence felt in politics is to become a member of a party and to attend its meetings. Then you will be able to do something to secure the nomination of good, honest men for parliament and the legislature, and to check the tendency to employ improper means in the conduct of an election campaign. There is often so much at stake in an election, that many men are willing to spend a large amount of money and to make use of all kinds of dishonourable methods rather than run the risk of losing. Moreover, various great business enterprises are ready to contribute money lavishly to election funds, if they have hopes thereby of securing favours from parliament, legislature, or council. So every citizen who loves his country should try to discover and oppose all tendencies to evil-doing in the party to which he belongs.

A third duty incumbent on you as a citizen is to be ready to assist, so far as you are able,

all good causes. You ought never to oppose them by speaking ill of them or by making them objects of ridicule. One of these causes is the thorough education of all citizens. It is the common, everyday people that make the governments, good or bad. Every person should have in his early life an opportunity to receive all the educational training that is possible for him, and within the power of the state to give. It will be found that the remedies for the evils of government and of society do not lie in the under-education of the masses of the people. On the other hand, there is no need to fear over-education, if the instruction given is of the right kind.

Another good cause of which you should speak no ill, is the effort which is being constantly made to lessen the evil of intemperance in our country. Our race from ancient times has suffered injury from the habit of drinking intoxicants to excess. It has become evident that it is at last possible for us to rid our people of this age-long curse. But the most important of all causes which we should support is that of religion. A nation that scoffs at religion is in

grave peril. Nothing can be found to take its place in the life of the people. It seems to be the only force strong enough to resist those tendencies which, if unchecked, will bring on rapid national decay and ruin.

The last duty of the citizen which we have occasion to mention, is that of endeavouring to lessen the cruelty of our civilization. When we read the history of early times, we are overpowered at the amount of suffering that seems to have been caused needlessly. In the ordinary pursuit of business and pleasure horrible and unnatural things were done. Probably some time in the future a similar charge will be brought against our own age. It would be well, if each day every one of us would think of the cruel things that we have seen done or that we ourselves have done, and then try to discover how much of the suffering thus caused might have been prevented. There is hardly any doubt that, if such a course were consistently followed, we should soon have a bright and happy world.

Rear up a nation firm and just,
A shrine of Liberty;
Raise up the earth-trod from the dust,
And make them strong and free,
Till none in all her wide domain
Be overwrought by power,
And they from every clime and strain
May bless her natal hour!
The millions in the future's hand
Look with all hope to you.
It is your duty to your land:
Canadians, be true!

Love her who guards you well and brave.
Unfeignèd loyally.
It is your right some day to have
With her th' enthroning sea,
The sway of fertile plain and isle,
The swarming homes of men,
Whom to defend and teach meanwhile
'Twill rest upon you then.
Love her howe'er her fate be cast,
And ever faithful do
Your duty to the Empire vast.
Canadians, be true!

APPENDIX I.

Parliamentary Titles.

1. Words that Precede the Name.

We speak of "His Majesty the King," "His Excellency the Governor-General," and "His Honour the Lieutenant-Governor."

The prime minister of the Dominion and the other cabinet ministers (whether at present in office or retired) have, as members of the Canadian Privy Council, the right to be styled "The Honourable." Some, however, have also been made members of the British Privy Council, and have, therefore, the title, "The Right Honourable."

The provincial premiers and the other members of the executive councils are styled "The Honourable."

A member of the Dominion Senate has the title, "The Honourable Senator."

The speakers of parliament and the legislatures have their names preceded by "The Honourable."

2. Letters that Follow the Name.

A member of the Dominion parliament is entitled to the use of the letters M.P. (that is, Member of Parliament).

A member of a provincial legislature employs the form M.P.P. (that is, Member of Provincial "Parliament"). It may be observed that we do not now apply the term "parliament" to a provincial legislature. Therefore, it would be more correct, if we wrote M.L. (Member of Legislature) or M.P.L. (Member of Provincial Legislature), but these forms have never been adopted.

In the provinces of Quebec and Nova Scotia, where there are two houses in the legislature, members of the legislative council and those of the legislative assembly are sometimes given the distinguishing titles M.L.C. and M.L.A., respectively. Occasionally but improperly, the form M.L.A. is used with the names of members of the legislature in the other provinces, where there is but one legislative chamber.

APPENDIX II.

Suggestions to the Teacher.

This book is intended to provide two years' work in the subject. During the first year the pupil should gain a general acquaintance with our government in its many divisions and learn to understand the meaning of the unfamiliar terms. The second year's work may include, in addition to a more thorough study of the topics treated in the book itself, a little independent investigation of questions of a more advanced character. A short list of such questions is given under Appendix IV. Many others will readily occur to the mind of the teacher. In order to obtain the necessary information pupils should be encouraged to consult the library (there should be one in every school), the newspapers, reports of governments and municipal councils, and their parents or older friends. It will probably surprise the teacher to find what an interest some will take in work of this kind. If a meeting of a mock council or parliament can be organized with the help of the senior scholars, the interest will be greatly increased.

There have been inserted in the book the most famous portions of the political poems of Tennyson. Certain lines in them express so perfectly some of the maxims of government that they are becoming part of our ordinary language.

In teaching civics, the purpose is not so much to load the pupil with knowledge, as to inspire within him a never-dying interest in the affairs of the nation. Hence, do not ask him to learn by heart such lists as occur under Topics II and XII. Rather let him acquire, through frequent reference, a practical acquaintance with them.

APPENDIX III.

A Brief Bibliography.

This list may be useful to the teacher, as it includes the names of books very easily obtained.

1. Necessary Books.

How Canada is Governed, Bourinot. Contains the British North America Act in full. Price $1.00.

Canadian Almanac for the current year. Contains lists of British and Canadian cabinet ministers, of members of parliament and legislatures, of judges and

sheriffs, and of municipalities and their officers, the customs tariff in full, and an account of the British Army, the British Navy, and the Canadian Militia. The volume for the year 1907 has also a brief description of the forms of government throughout the world. Price 50 cents (paper), 75 cents (bound).

2. Helpful Books.

The English Constitution, Bagehot. Contrasts the British and American systems of government. Price $1.25.

Europe in the Nineteenth Century, Judson. Gives brief accounts of the constitutions of the principal countries of Europe. Price $1.25.

Canadian Citizenship, Millar. Discusses briefly forms of government and modern social problems. Price 60 cents.

School Civics with Civics of New York State, Boynton. Contains the constitutions of the United States and New York. Price $1.00.

3. For More Advanced Study.

American Commonwealth, Bryce, 2 vols. Interesting and invaluable. Price $4.00.

Canadian Annual Review, Hopkins. The volume for each year gives an excellent account of public events. Price $2.50.

Letters of Queen Victoria, 3 vols. Price $1.50.

Life of Gladstone, Morley, 2 vols. Price $3.50.

(These two books shed light on the development of the English constitution in the nineteenth century.)

The Statutes of the Dominion and the Province. Copies of special statutes may sometimes be obtained from the government offices, either *gratis* or on the payment of a small sum.

Canada Year Book, published by the Census and Statistics Office, Ottawa. Contains all kinds of statistical information.

APPENDIX IV.

Subjects for Study.

(For Advanced Pupils.)

TOPIC I.

1. Look up in the dictionary or elsewhere the meaning of the following: aristocracy, aristocratic, democracy, democratic, oligarchy, oligarchic, anarchy, anarchist, socialism, socialist, autocrat, autocracy, autocratic.

2. Find out the names of the rulers of the great powers of the world.

3. Discover something about the government of the countries commonly mentioned in the newspapers.

4. Read the lives of Queen Victoria and Abraham Lincoln.

5. What do you think is the best form of government? Give your reasons.

TOPIC II.

1. To which of the two, the Dominion or the province, belong those powers which are not definitely assigned in

the constitution? Show how our constitution differs from that of the United States in this respect.

2. Discuss the value and dangers of the power of disallowance.

3. Give an account of the negotiations that led up to confederation.

4. "The laws of our province have much more to do with our ordinary life and its happiness than have the laws of the Dominion." Discuss this statement.

5. Find out what you can about the federal constitutions of the Commonwealth of Australia and the Empire of Germany.

TOPIC III.

1. Give a brief account of the governors-general of Canada since confederation.

2. Compare the duties of the governor-general of Canada with those of the president of the United States and the president of France.

3. What would be the advantages and disadvantages of the appointment of a Canadian as governor-general?

4. Would it be advisable to have the governor-general elected by popular vote?

5. What are the arguments in favour of retaining the Senate?

6. How do you think the Senate could best be "reformed"?

7. What difficulties may arise, if the leader of the government or a large proportion of his cabinet belong to the Senate?

TOPIC IV.

1. Read over the speech from the throne given at the opening of the last session of parliament, and make notes as to its form and contents.

2. What corresponds at Washington to our "speech from the throne"?

3. Give an account of the usual proceedings in the House of Commons on the opening day of the session.

4. Discuss the question of the supremacy of the House of Commons in our system of government.

5. Give an account of the duties of the speaker of the House of Commons.

6. Describe how a debate is conducted in parliament.

7. What are the advantages of committees in the work of the House?

TOPIC V.

1. Trace briefly the origin of the cabinet in English history.

2. Compare our cabinet with the American cabinet.

3. What are the advantages and disadvantages of the Canadian cabinet as an instrument of government?

4. What difference is there between the position of a premier under our system and that of a president under the American system?

5. What foreign nations have adopted the British cabinet system?

6. Why is it necessary that all members of the cabinet should be in agreement on important questions?

TOPIC VI.

1. Make out a list of important public questions now before the people of Canada.

2. What would be the result in our system of govern ment, if political parties ceased to exist?

3. What are the advantages and the disadvantages of the party system of government?

4. What is a coalition government? Have we ever had a coalition government in the Dominion?

5. What were the platforms of the two parties at the last Dominion elections?

6. Write an article favouring the policy of one of the parties.

TOPIC VII.

1. Find how long the last session of parliament lasted. Indicate briefly what business was done during the session.

2. On what dates and in what years are federal elections held in the United States?

3. What would be the result in our system of government, if elections were held on fixed dates as in the United States?

4. How many parliaments have we had since confederation? Find what was the length of each and the year of dissolution.

5. What are the names of the premiers since confederation? How did each come to give up office?

6. Give an account of a by-election, if one has been held in your constituency recently.

TOPIC VIII.

1. What are the names of the present members of the cabinet and their departments?

2. Describe the system of "patronage" and its evils.

3. Is management by a board of commissioners an advantage in the case of a public enterprise?

4. Give a brief account of our militia system.

5. What difficulties have arisen in connection with the civil service?

6. Discuss the problem of "strikes."

7. Write a brief account of the development of our railway and canal systems.

TOPIC IX.

1. What are the dangers of a heavy national debt? What is the amount of the national debt of Canada?

2. What is the annual expenditure of the Dominion? Mention the important items of the expenditure.

3. Would it be advisable to adopt a system of direct taxation for the Dominion? Give reasons for your answer.

4. Discuss briefly the Canadian tariff question.

5. Make a note of the important points in the last budget speech.

6. How are customs and excise duties collected?

TOPIC X.

1. Tell how you would proceed at the bank in depositing money and in withdrawing it.

2. What are the merits of the Canadian banking system?

TOPIC XI.

1. Who are the members of the provincial executive and what are their departments?

2. What are the policies of the political parties in provincial matters?

3. What are the merits and defects of the system of Dominion subsidies to the provinces?

4. Would it be better if the Dominion and the provincial political parties were entirely separate from each other?

TOPIC XII.

1. What is the name, size and population of your municipality?

2. Write a brief history of your municipality since its organization.

3. Describe its physical features and its industries.

4. Who are the members of the council?

5. Give an account of the last municipal election.

6. What are the important questions in municipal politics?

7. Mention some of the property exempt from taxation in your municipality.

8. What are the chief items in the expenditure of your municipality? What is the amount of the expenditure. Is your municipality in debt?

9. Describe the method of assessment in your municipality.

TOPIC XIII.

1. In what judicial district do you live? Who is the sheriff? Who are the judges of the county court? What is the name of the nearest place where court is usually held?

2. Write a note on the police force of your municipality.

3. Mention an important case that has gone to the Privy Council in England for final decision.

TOPIC XIV.

1. Describe your school and grounds. What was the cost of the building? What improvements are most needed, and how much would they probably cost? What has been the cost of the furniture and equipment of your schoolroom?

2. How much money does your school district (division or section) receive in grants, and what is its expenditure? What is the rate of taxation for school purposes?

3. Where is the nearest high school (collegiate institute or academy)? Tell what you can about it.

4. Give an account of the university or universities of the province, and of the agricultural college.

5. What are the advantages of a good education?

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